The Nation

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Summary of the News

The President's decision on the latest proposals submitted by Germany in regard to the Lusitania will perhaps have been made known by the time this issue of the *Nation* is published. We can at present only review briefly the course of events. New instructions were cabled to Ambassador Bernstorff from Germany on February 1. According to general understanding in Washington, these contain some concessions to the American point of view, but Germany is still unwilling to acknowledge in so many words the illegality of her action. The question which, as we write, is still not officially reported settled is how nearly the latest concessions of Germany approximate to the direct admission of illegality for which the United States has contended.

There has been a curious discrepancy between the views of the German and the American press on the prospects of an amicable settlement. Following news of the delivery of the German communication to the State Department on Friday of last week and pessimistic comment from Berlin, dispatches from Washington were extremely guarded in expressing hopes for a favorable solution of the matter. Since then, however, while gloom has deepened from day to day in the German press, the tone of Washington dispatches has become increasingly hopeful. At the same time it is rightly pointed out that the decision which the President must make is not merely on the use of this word or that. On Germany's admission of the illegality of her act stands or falls the whole policy of the Administration, the avowed aim of which has been to uphold international law. The German press, notably in a statement attributed to Dr. Zimmermann, Under Secretary of the Berlin Foreign Office, has taken the view that the demands of the United States have been progressively increased, as Germany has made concession after concession. That accusation, as Mr. Lansing pointed out in a statement issued on Monday, is absolutely false, the present demand of the United States being based solely on the notes of May 13, June 9, and July 21 of last year.

President Wilson returned to Washington from his speech-making tour on February 4, much "elated," according to press reports, by the enthusiasm which his pleas for preparedness had aroused. The lengths to which the President's new-found enthusiasm for armaments has carried him were most conspicuously illustrated at St. Louis, where he declared that the American navy "ought, in my judgment, to be incomparably the greatest navy in the world." We discuss this and other aspects of the President's tour in our editorial columns.

Two minor measures of the Administration's programme for preparedness were passed in the House without dissent on Monday: the bill giving each member of Congress the right to appoint three instead of two midshipmen to Annapolis, and the bill appropriating $100,000 for additional building ways at the New York Navy Yard, and $500,000 for a similar addition to the Mare Island Yard.

The Philippine bill was passed by the Senate on February 4 by a vote of 52 to 24. As passed, it retains the Clarke amendment, carried by the casting vote of Vice-President Marshall on February 2, directing that full independence shall be granted to the Filipinos not later than March 4, 1921. This amendment, however, was only adopted after it had been modified by striking out the clause providing for the neutralization of the islands and the guaranteeing of their independence for a term of five years.

Another measure that has suffered emasculation is the Colombian treaty, which was favorably reported on February 2 by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. In its present form, the regret for injury which was to have been expressed by the United States to Colombia is made mutual, and the indemnity to be paid is reduced from $25,000,000 to $15,000,000.

The precise status of the Appam, the British liner which last week was brought into Newport News as a German prize, has not been definitely settled, but apparently it is the intention of the State Department to treat her as a prize of Germany in accordance with Article 19 of the treaty of 1799 between Prussia and the United States. The prisoners of war on board have been permitted to leave, and will be returned to their own countries. The identity of the raider which captured the ship is still doubtful, but the weight of testimony seems to be that she was the Ponga rather than the Moewe, and most accounts agree that she slipped out of Kiel harbor, eluding the British blockade.

One can only deplore so senseless an act as the burning of the Canadian Parliament Building at Ottawa, which occurred on the night of February 3, and concerning the incendiary origin of which there is natural suspicion and apparently very little doubt. The building was completely gutted, and five lives, including those of two women, were lost. Since the fire, extraordinary precautions have been taken by the military authorities of Canada, and rumors of Teutonic plots have been frequent. An attempt to wreck the Victoria Bridge across the St. Lawrence at Montreal is said to have been frustrated; a number of suspected persons have been arrested, and munition plants, bridges, and canals have been put under heavy military guard.

Following the extensive Zeppelin raid over England, which we recorded last week, the British War Office, on February 5, departed from its usual policy of reticence, and gave out a detailed statement of the damage done, in refutation of the German account of the raid. Official returns give 59 persons killed and 101 injured. Jubilation in Germany over this successful slaughter of civilians has been accompanied by furious indignation at the action of the captain of a British fishing trawler, who, discovering a Zeppelin floating disabled in the North Sea and being appealed to for assistance, refused to take the crew aboard on the ground that they greatly outnumbered his own men, and were, in addition, armed. He feared lest, once aboard, they should take possession of the trawler, and, declining to accept the German officer's word of honor, went in search of a British war vessel to send to the rescue. Destroyers, subsequently dispatched, failed to find the wrecked Zeppelin, and the presumption is, therefore, that the crew perished.

From the various areas of war the only definite news is of furious artillery engagements on the western front. Unofficial dispatches have reported the defeat of a Turkish relieving force ten miles south of Erzerum, which appears to be closely invested by the Russians. No further progress has been made by the British relief force under Gen. Aylmer in Mesopotamia. There have been renewed rumors of a forthcoming attack on Salonica.

No further definite news has been received regarding the position of Rumania, except that on February 4 a supplementary military credit of $40,000,000 was introduced in the Chamber. It has been officially stated in London that the British Government has no knowledge of any note, almost an ultimatum in character, which was reported on February 7, from Italian sources, to have been sent to Rumania by the Central Powers.

The official British announcement that the orders of the Government regarding military operations will henceforth be signed by Sir William Robertson, Chief of Staff, has given rise to rumors in England that the resignation of Lord Kitchener as Secretary for War and his transference to another important post may shortly be expected. Lord Derby, a natural guess, is already spoken of as his possible successor at the War Office.

A British Parliamentary paper issued on Monday gave translations of all the correspondence taken from Capt. von Papen, ex-Military Attaché at the German Embassy in Washington, as well as the full entries of his bank account and facsimiles of checks and stubbs. Cabled accounts of the paper indicate that the new material published, though interesting and significant, is not incriminating.

We draw attention in our editorial columns to the most illuminating appeal issued, under date of November 24, 1915, by Cardinal Mercier and the bishops of Belgium to the Cardinals and bishops of Germany and Austria-Hungary, in which the Belgian bishops request that a joint commission of Catholic prelates—consisting of Belgians and Germans in equal numbers, with one prelate of a neutral country — be appointed to inquire into the charges of franc-tireurism brought by Germans against the Belgian troops, and also into the charges of inhumanity in the invasion of Belgium brought against the German army. The full text of the document, which it is significant to note has met with no response, was published in the *Evening Post* of February 1.

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The Week

Speaker Clark urged that Congress ascertain the best type of battleship "and then pass a resolution that all of the rest of the ships are to be built on that model and thus shorten up this process by six months."

And if it be asked just in what manner Congress may take half a day off and determine the best type of battleship, the proceedings in the House, with the Speaker as chief actor, supply the answer:

Mr. Butler said it was now understood that England and Germany purposed putting 17-inch guns on their battleships. "We have 14-inch guns on ours; what shall we do?" he asked.

"Put on our battleships 17-inch guns," replied the Speaker. "Put on the biggest guns attainable, or that ever were attainable, on every one of these battleships we build."

One feels immediately that if we go in for preparedness, this is the kind of preparedness we should have. No fussing with engineers' stresses and resistances, ordnance officers' tables of trajectory, designers' blueprints. From England, it is true, come reports that the seventeen-inch gun is a myth and an impossibility, but that is because England has not yet learned how to hustle. "Boy, run around the corner and fetch a dozen of the biggest and blackest guns you can get and stick them up wherever they will be useful."

The Administration counts upon the flood of letters and resolutions said to be coming in from the West to overcome the objections of the Democratic insurgents to the President's programme of preparedness. But all those Congressmen who have held out against it have done so conscientiously, knowing that they would face criticism and opposition. Had they been mere time-servers they would have gone with their fellows who are swallowing their convictions for the sake of party regularity. Were they men who could be influenced by mere numbers, they would have been at least roosting on the fence. But Messrs. Kitchin, Saunders, Calloway, Hensley, Sherwood, and Bailey and their followers have taken their stand because they sincerely believe that it is their patriotic duty to do so. They may, and probably will, be voted down by the aid of the Republicans, but they are not of the type to yield merely to pressure. They must have felt that they were even risking their political future when they took their position, and doubtless weighed the consequences carefully before assuming their stand. Indeed, the effort to dragoon them into doing what they do not wish to do is likely to have the opposite effect of stiffening their backbones. They are not to be moved by the argument that, if they do not vote preparedness, the Republicans will get the credit of it. They may be more than willing to have the Republicans bear the final responsibility.

The adoption by the House without dissent of a bill increasing the naval cadet corps at Annapolis by about one-fourth is an attempt to deal with the one criticism against the efficiency of the fleet which has been most nearly justified. Admiral Fletcher, who has not let himself be swept away by the lust for impregnable and incomparable navies, does emphasize the shortage of men in the navy as it stands to-day. The *Nation*, some time ago, quoted figures to show that by comparative tonnage the fleet should be as fully manned as the British fleet. But it may be that the exactions of service on our ships are higher, or that Admiral Fletcher has set himself a higher standard than obtains in the British navy. At any rate, if the fleet's efficiency suffers from a shortage of men, the men should be had. But here, too, it is well to keep in mind that the voting of sums and numbers may quiet the conscience of Congress, but will not meet the need of the hour if out of sums and numbers we do not get the full measure of service. While the House was voting 300 additional midshipmen, 220 midshipmen were being reexamined at Annapolis after failing to obtain a passing mark of 62.5 per cent.; and the reëxamination has left eighty-two midshipmen by the wayside. One of the newspapers found the other day that psychology was the reason for the deplorable showing at Annapolis. With the country facing international complications and a possible need for all available officers, the impression spread at Annapolis that examinations would not be too hard. Not that the middies deliberately put away their books, but there was a "psychological slackening." In the Kaiser's war colleges, we imagine, the imminence of war rather induces than discourages study.

The vote by which the Philippine bill passed the Senate on Friday of last week, 52 to 24, with the emphatic defeat of the amendments which would have tied various strings to the authorization of a grant of independence by the President in four years, reflects a change of sentiment as striking as it is pleasing. Last year the amended Jones bill commanded halting support, and promised independence only at an indefinite date. It is hard to realize that three months ago Republican and Progressive Congressmen were making the welkin ring with charges that the Philippines were going to ruin under the Democratic Administration, and that at the present rate it would be decades before they could be turned over to their own people. The acquiescence now seems general. Six Republicans voted with the Democratic forces, and several neither voted nor were paired. Apprehensions of possible difficulty in guarding overseas dependencies are partly responsible for the change. But there is no doubt that conviction as to what in good faith is due the islands we took nearly twenty years ago, and reassurance as to their increasing ability to take care of themselves, played as large a part. If the House concurs, the Philippines may now look forward to a definite independence, and may, by their conduct under the greater home rule granted them, prove their title to it.

"Blackmail" the Colonel will probably still call the new form of the Colombia treaty, though the lump sum to be paid is reduced to $15,000,000, and the expressions of regret for the strained relations between Bogota and Washington are made "mutual." If on these terms we could get the dropping of the claims which Colombia has urged for thirteen years, with a restoration of friendship, we ought to consider ourselves fortunate. To pay up and say nothing is hardly manly, when the paying up is itself a confession of wrongdoing. In point of fact, the general comment at Washington upon the treaty in the shape in which the Senate Committee has reported it is that it will by no means satisfy Colombia. Yet, even with the changes made, the Republican minority in the Senate will probably not allow it to receive approval. Even in Taft's time the Administration was willing to pay Colombia $10,000,000 for nothing more than her "stipulations and reservations" in any canal, according to the treaty of 1846. The only alternative to a just voluntary settlement is arbitration.

The full text of the appeal of the Belgian bishops, which was published in the New York *Evening Post* in the issue of February 1, is an eloquent and pathetic document. Its writers are deeply moved both as Catholic prelates and as patriotic Belgians. To see their country wronged, invad-

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ed, reduced to misery, was tragic enough; but to see it calumniated, to have the truth about what happened in those awful months of 1914 denied or suppressed, is more than they can endure. Their demand that the Catholic authorities in Germany join with them in sifting the allegations made against the Belgians, and in weighing the evidence of German atrocities, is couched in elevated language. It will not be granted, we suppose. But the plea, suffused as it is with pity, with Christian motives, and at the same time with moral indignation, will reach the whole world, and will hereafter be a veritable historic monument in reproach of German deeds in Belgium. And it helps one to understand how the Pope, to whose ears these touching appeals of the Belgian prelates must have come, has let it be known that he will take no step to bring about peace until the preliminary is clearly laid down that Belgium is to be restored.

Predictions of the retirement of Lord Kitchener from the War Office are based on a ruling just issued to the effect that the Chief of Staff "shall be responsible for issuing the orders of the Government regarding military operations." To the extent that this is a limitation on the powers of the War Secretary, it operates just as well on Kitchener's successor, if there is to be one. Orders are still to issue from the "Government," and in that Government the Secretary of War cannot help playing a leading part and taking his share of the responsibility. If Kitchener goes, it will not be exclusively or even primarily because he has failed in a military sense. As the war expanded, it became plain that his original task was too big for any one man. Of such military errors as have been committed, the one outstanding blunder, Gallipoli, is not to be checked up against the War Secretary. Where he seems to have failed is in his functions as a civilian official. In the early phases of the war, the Cabinet was not in full touch with the situation; not because Kitchener chose to keep things to himself, but because of his typically British inarticulateness, which is said to have led to misunderstandings.

Of all the German newspapers, it is only the Social-Democratic organ, *Vorwärts*, which is quoted as condemning the murderous Zeppelin raids. This it does on the ground both of humanity and of policy. Nothing is gained, it argues, and much is lost. The English are only stiffened in their determination by the massacre of women and children, while neutral opinion is further alienated from Germany. This kind of talk, at once humane and sensible, is in line with many other deliverances by German Social Democrats about the war. Both sections of the party, for example, went on record in the Reichstag as opposed to forcible annexations, and demanded, almost in so many words, the placing of Belgium back where she was before. It would thus appear that the Social Democrats have in their special keeping the conscience of Germany to-day. At least, they are about the only ones who give voice openly to sentiments of the kind we have noted. Yet it was not so long ago that the German Socialists were held up by the highest authority as the enemies of civilization, who were in danger of being "dashed to pieces" by the Kaiser.

The conceding by the defendant of all the Government's contentions, in the civil suit against the National Cash Register Company under the Anti-Trust law, marks an important victory for the Department of Justice. The evidence against the company, in the matter of unfair competition, was of a kind which will make the voluntary surrender of the defendants a precedent of value, and is likely to put a stop to such practices of the sort as may have existed on the part of other companies. This phase of the matter is not affected by the Government's consent to dismiss the criminal suit against the directors. In that suit, a jury in the Federal District Court had returned a verdict of guilty, which was set aside by the Appellate Court on more or less technical grounds, but which was being brought again. The Government's action in withdrawing that suit is significant in the same way as the failure of the jury to convict the New Haven directors under the criminal clause of the Anti-Trust law. The accumulating instances of this nature go to prove the fact, of which most thoughtful people were convinced beforehand, that the inflicting of prison sentences for violation of a law, on whose scope and meaning even the courts did not agree at the time the act was committed, is repugnant to the American sense of justice.

The Republicans of the country are officially notified that their party "is no longer the storm-tossed ship that it has been in the State of Wisconsin for the past fifteen years." This cheering message comes from Gov. Philipp, who addressed the State Convention the other day. Harmony is thick. Have La Follette and the conservatives signed a treaty? Not at all. The Senator is ignored, except by veiled allusion, as in the Governor's reply to the question, What of Presidential possibilities? There are not so many Presidential possibilities as there are Presidential impossibilities, he declaims, and he clothes his appeal for an uninstructed delegation to Chicago in this rhetorico-philosophical dress:

> Let us go back to the true system of American government, the true representative government. Let us select men that we can trust, men in whose patriotism we have faith, and let them represent us and let us feel that they are doing it with a full conception of the responsibility that rests upon them. We shall hold them responsible, and let us receive that selection in the end in absolute agreement. Let us feel in the end that they did the best they could, that they did the right thing for the country, and follow the leadership of that man, whoever he may be, in a united front.

Which, being interpreted, means: "Kill La Follette's ambition." But the Senator is the only candidate in the Republican Presidential primaries. If ten of his followers vote for him, and all the other Republicans vote for the anti-La Follette delegates "suggested" by the Convention, will not the delegates be bound to vote for their arch-foe? Is there any way by which a State with a Presidential primary can avoid endorsing a candidate who has no open rival?

We are apparently to have a series of statements to the public by the anthracite producers. So far they merely appeal for fair consideration of the facts, presumably to be supplied later, entering into the controversy between the operators and their employees. The present agreement in the anthracite coal fields expires on March 31. The principal demands formulated by the miners are for a 20 per cent. increase of wages and the reduction of hours from nine to eight. But already in their preliminary statement the operators have advanced what will doubtless be the main argument against the miners' demands. It is asserted that an increase of wages and "substantial changes in conditions of employment" render inevitable a notable increase in the cost of coal to the consumer. This sum, on the basis of a 20 per cent. increase in wages, is estimated by the operators at $23,000,000. The operators are careful to state that the price interests of the consumer cannot precede the essential conditions of a living wage for the miners and adequate working conditions on the one hand and a fair return to invested capital on the other. The sub-

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stance and the whole tone of the operators' statement are far removed, indeed, from George F. Baer's theory of the anthracite owners' responsibility either to the workers or to the public.

It is certain that the miners, in pleading their case, will deny the necessary connection between an increase in wages and a sharp rise in the price of coal. As a brief on their side the United Mine Workers of America are circulating Dr. Scott Nearing's book, "Anthracite." Between the facts and figures cited in that study and the implications in the operators' statement there is so wide a divergence as amply to call for a sane and full consideration of the matter. It is a subject which cannot be attempted in the compass of a single paragraph, but the divergence between the claims put forward by the two sides is illustrated in Dr. Nearing's analysis of the ratio of miners' wages to the total price of coal to the consumer. He estimates that out of seven dollars paid by the consumer for a ton of kitchen coal, the wages apportioned to the miner amount to 55 cents. Between an increase of 11 cents per ton, which a 20 per cent. increase in wages should bring, according to Dr. Nearing's figures, and an increase of 60 cents per ton as foreseen by the operators, the gap is striking.

The one large permanent memorial of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, according to present plans, is to be the Palace of Fine Arts—by common verdict the best product of architect and sculptor. It is to be hoped that it can be kept in better preservation than has been the "Field Columbia Museum" in Chicago. But arrangements have also been made to retain here a number of the foreign exhibits, and to reconstruct on other sites the buildings in which they have been shown. The University of California is to receive the Japanese office building. San Francisco is to have the building of Siam, made entirely of Siamese wood; the statuary and paintings of the French, the Greek, and the Argentine and Bolivian buildings; the Chinese and Hawaiian buildings, and nearly all the horticultural exhibits. The Commercial Museum of Philadelphia and the Field Museum of Chicago also profit by several donations; and some Western city is to receive from Japan the substantial reproduction of the Kinkaku Temple. In the quick dismantling of great expositions there seems a regrettable waste. San Francisco, like Chicago, Buffalo, Portland, and other cities, will remind the visitor that books are not entirely closed on the last day.

As if it were not enough to scrutinize the travelling expenses of Government agents and the hotel bills of legislative committees, amateur golfers are now to be hauled over the coals. Free transportation in a special train was offered by the Del Monte Club of California as a part of the inducement to give it the Western amateur championship. But the United States Golf Association has taken, or is expected to take, the ground that any golfer accepting will forfeit his amateur status, and will be debarred from other contests. This might seem like straining at an impulsive proffer of Western hospitality, but the fact is that a great many abuses of the sort have been creeping into amateur golf, and it was high time that the Association took a decided stand. It may be impossible to draw a line between professional and amtaeur golfers which shall be clear and absolute at all points, but there are some practices which are unmistakable. If a player takes money, directly or indirectly, for his display of skill at the game, he is a professional in spirit, and ought to be rated as such in fact. The ruling of the National Golf Association may cause a certain amount of heartburning, but it will be welcomed by all who are anxious to maintain the finest standards of a game in which men are peculiarly placed upon their honor.

The announcement that the Presbyterian Church of Canada has voted by a decided majority in favor of union with the Methodist and Congregational Churches in all further expansion, should go far towards settling a vexed question in Canadian church history. If church union is ever urgently desirable, it must be so in the sparsely peopled Canadian West, where the slender resources of many have been depleted by the war. For some years negotiations for a union of the three churches have dragged, with the Methodists and Congregationalists fairly definitely committed to the new policy. The Presbyterians of eastern Canada have been the main obstacle. Last year the Presbyterian Church voted for union by a considerable majority, but a second vote was required. With only the Winnipeg Presbytery now to hear from, the second majority for union is placed at 53,000 out of a total vote of 240,000. There are those who contend that the vote of nearly 100,000 against union, with its reflection of a deep reluctance in the East, will prevent the step. But it seems more likely that the force of the majority, who demand some better method of carrying religion to the settlers moving into the prairie provinces, will sway the General Assembly in its meeting next June.

The friends and admirers of Emile Verhaeren in France have learned with relief that the poet's house at Hainault has been respected by the Germans. The little residence of "Caillou-qui-bique" was visited by Bavarian officers, but they did not touch its contents. It would have been peculiarly regrettable to see destroyed the place where the poet wrote "Les Heures Claires." It was from this retreat that in summer he would often set out, dressed in a peasant's blouse and with a great knotty stick in his hand. "Where are you going?" his anxious wife would inquire. "Là-bas," he would answer carelessly, with a vague, sweeping gesture. "Là-bas" meant the foot of the garden, but it meant also the horizon, the province, all France. Setting out thus with only his club for baggage, the poet would sometimes not return to "Caillou-qui-bique" till three months after.

Hopes that the native peoples of Africa and Asia will receive fairer treatment from European Governments after a war in which many of them are fighting valiantly, are partly justified by an announcement of the French Premier. Recently M. Clemenceau and Georges Leygues, heads of the committees on foreign affairs of the Senate and Chamber, wrote him that both bodies had agreed as to the justice of proposed reforms among the natives, and as to the propriety of carrying them out while the natives were giving such proofs of their loyalty to France. M. Briand now states that among bills prepared for immediate submission is one granting the natives of North Africa liberal naturalization privileges, which, while according the naturalized man full rights, will not deprive him of his personal status as a native. Another is a bill for native representation in the Superior Council for Algeria, Tunis, and Morocco, soon to sit in Paris, which has been constituted to strengthen political bonds between France and Africa. A third reforms the system by which certain natives have been taxed, and extends a better protection to their property. The letter of the committees contains the sentiment that it is necessary to extend to all native subjects "the benefit of the progressive application of those basic provisions of liberty and justice which are the honor and strength of the Republic."

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THE PRESIDENT AND THE CROWD.

I do not want to say anything disrespectful about any newspaper, but it is astonishing how little some newspaper editors know, and I would like from some of them a candid expression of the impression they have got from what has happened since I left Washington.—[President Wilson at St. Louis.

In this the President was referring to the great crowds which have thronged his car, made up his audiences, and cheered his speeches, during his recent tour. Now, newspaper editors are doubtless an ignorant set, but one truth has been beaten into their thick heads by long experience. It is that there is no proof of popularity so uncertain as ability to draw a crowd. They have seen crowds before. Hearst had his crowds, Bryan has had more and bigger crowds than any man living, Roosevelt had enormous crowds in 1912. What they amounted to all men now know. It is surprising that any public man in this country should, with all this recent history before him, allow himself to be trapped by the fallacy of the crowd. He ought to ponder on the grim remark of Cromwell, when some one pointed out to him the applauding multitudes as he rode through London: "Twice as many would have come to see me hanged."

As for a statesman learning true policy from the cheers of a crowd, what can be greater folly? For proof we need go no further than one point in President Wilson's addresses during his journey. He has told the people that as we kept our word to Cuba, to the astonishment of the world, and hauled down our flag at Havana (great applause), so we are soon to do the highest honor to the flag by hauling it down in Manila (immense cheering). But how did we ever get into the Philippines, from which even most Republicans are now anxious to withdraw? By the crowds, in the same part of the country where Mr. Wilson has been speaking, cheering President McKinley when he put out the car-end suggestion that the United States keep those "gems and glories of the tropic seas." In that popular acclaim—which would just as readily have been given to the opposite sentiment—Mr. McKinley found the voice of manifest destiny bidding us stay in the Philippines. By the same infallible token, manifest destiny now bids us get out!

In any candid opinion of what has happened since the President left Washington, it would be impossible to omit note of the danger of such extemporaneous speaking as Mr. Wilson's on subjects of vital importance. Oratorically, he has had a triumph. His ease and marvellous readiness of phrase have again been demonstrated. But no man of fluent speech and rhetorical temperament, like the President, can go on addressing great audiences on the spur of the moment, without peril of having, as Mr. Choate once said, his flanks left bleeding by that spur. The orator is played upon by his audience, as well as plays upon it. Applause excites him to go further than he had intended—certainly further than is wise. More than once on his trip the President fell into this oratorical temptation, but the conspicuous and startling instance occurred at St. Louis, when he declared: "The American navy ought, in my judgment, to be incomparably the strongest in the world."

"Whaur's yer Wully Shakespeare noo?" challenged the triumphant Scot. And "Where's your Teddy Roosevelt now?" may well be asked after this utterance of Mr. Wilson. It goes beyond anything ever demanded, we will not say by serious public men in the United States, but by the Security Leagues and the Defence Leagues and the amateur strategists in their wildest dreams. Always, till now, the English fleet has been kept out of our naval reckonings. With the responsible statesmen of both parties in England—men like Mr. Balfour and Sir Edward Grey—on record as believing that war with the United States is "unthinkable"; and with our own national attitude towards Great Britain increasingly friendly for twenty years past, it has become a commonplace that our naval programme need not be influenced by the English strength at sea. But now, unless the President's outburst is to be set down to a mere temporary and regrettable case of the crowd going to his head, we are to build more warships than England has! Nothing is said about ways and means; no allowance is made for the certainty that if we seek to out-build England she will out-build us—just as she has out-built Germany. All comes down to the mere "judgment" of the President that our fleet ought to be "incomparably" stronger than any other in the world. This loose talk by Mr. Wilson will give added cause for such fears as were recently expressed by the English *Labor Leader:*

> The war was inaugurated as a holy crusade against militarism. It is proving, as we feared it would, an unholy crusade to strengthen militarism. Arising from the war the American nation has decided enormously to strengthen its army and navy. The Government has decided to make the United States the second naval Power of the world, involving an increase in personnel of 7,500 men, whilst the army is to be increased by the addition of 40,000 regulars and 400,000 "disciplined citizens" similar to our own Territorial forces. The extension of the American navy will no doubt lead to the extension of the British navy and to the extension of the military preparations of Continental Powers. We fear there is every sign that the power of militarism will be tremendously increased, not lessened, by the war. The only hope lies in a revulsion of feeling on the part of the people.

We do not forget that the President declared himself one with the people of this country in desiring peace, and in hoping that this will be the last great war. There are, indeed, signs that there will be a mighty popular revulsion against war, in the nations harried by it, and that there will be deep execrations directed at rulers who needlessly and therefore wickedly bring on war. But they will also have to avoid careless and inflammatory language about war—language such as the President amazed all sober citizens by using at St. Louis.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR A PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE.

Gov. Whitman of New York explicitly stated on Sunday that he is not a candidate for the Presidency. He also took occasion to deny that he had entered, or would enter, into a political combination with any Western man, in accordance with which Mr. Whitman should be nominated as Vice-President. His sole ambition at present, the Governor affirms, is so to administer the office which he now holds that he may deserve and receive another term in it. All this was put out by the Governor with every appearance of sincerity, and we have no doubt that it stands for his reading to-day of the signs of the times. On his clear perception of the political situation, and of his duty and opportunity, we think that both he and the State are to be congratulated.

In discovering that he is not a Presidential candidate, the Governor has lagged behind the people. They found it out long ago. And they also found out that his thoughts of the greater office were interfering with the best conduct of the Governorship. All the more reason for gratification at his having decided to forget the other, and to buckle down seriously to the job that he has. As a matter of fact and of history, many Governors have become Presidential candidates, and some of them have been elected President. Their success, however, has directly depended upon their having done such valiant work for the State that

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the idea of drafting them for service to the nation arose spontaneously in the mind of the people. It was admittedly so with Gov. Tilden and Gov. Cleveland. In devoting themselves to State problems they displayed qualities which the country as a whole envied for its own use. In the same way, the Governorship of New Jersey was to Woodrow Wilson a distinct stepping-stone to the Presidency. Now, in these and other cases it would not do to assert that dreams of a higher office never came to the Governors. They could not be unaware that they were being "mentioned" for the Presidency. But they gave at least the impression that this was secondary in their hearts, and that the thing which primarily absorbed their energies was the working of reform and betterment in the public service and laws of their States. To those labors they gave themselves unstintedly. The rest came of itself.

Quite different, unfortunately for Gov. Whitman, was the impression made by him during his first year of office. Perhaps he was not wholly to blame for this. He was afflicted by fool friends and flatterers. It was from them that the chief insistence came that Mr. Whitman was the destined Republican candidate in 1916. But the Governor himself seemed to incline his ear far too graciously to this sort of talk. Some of his appointments, a few of his speeches—above all, the tide of political gossip that flowed unobstructed at the State capital—produced a general belief that the Governor was thinking far more of Washington than he was of Albany. This had the effect of fixing a nation-wide attention upon Mr. Whitman which was not altogether lucky for him. His party was ready to be convinced that he was of full Presidential size, but unhappily became convinced of the contrary. It anticipated the Governor in deciding that his true sphere of usefulness was at Albany. This feeling is now so clearly manifest, and so nearly universal, that Mr. Whitman himself bows to it.

In taking note of his Presidential aspirations, and of their quenching, for the time being at all events, the attentive student of American politics can get a very good line on the qualifications which the people of this country are more and more demanding in their President. They want sterling character, of course; they want ability; they desire strength. But over and above all such qualities there are two things which they are increasingly disposed to require in their Chief Executive. These are, first, an enormous capacity to work, and to work with a kind of dynamic passion for justice and for reform, setting sordid politicians at defiance; secondly, a gift of high and statesmanlike imagination, enabling its possessor to appeal to the imagination of his fellow-citizens. It is in this moving quality—so indispensable to energizing leadership—that Gov. Whitman has been felt to be lacking. The nation fails to discern it, too, in other possible Republican candidates—in Burton, in Weeks, in Cummins. Granting that what their friends say in their praise is true, it yet remains the fact that none of them has shown power to kindle the imagination of Americans. And what Napoleon said is still true—the world is governed by the imagination. This may be one reason why Gov. Whitman, in putting an end to his own Presidential candidacy, declares that he is for the nomination of Hughes.

CIRCUMLOCUTION SHIPS

No one can examine the new Administration Shipping bill without feeling that it goes at its work in exceedingly roundabout fashion. Its professed aim is to "encourage, develop, and create a naval auxiliary and naval reserve," and at the same time "a merchant marine to meet the requirements of the commerce of the United States." But the various provisions of the bill oscillate between these two diverse ends in a way positively disconcerting. Now a ship is to be a naval auxiliary, and now it is to be a merchantman. Ships are to be taken for the navy, and also are to be taken out of the navy. The implication is that there is a great need of more naval auxiliaries, yet section 5 provides that those which we now have may be transferred to the Shipping Board and used in trade. The case seems to be continually one of now you see the ship, and now you don't.

Such awkwardnesses and apparent working at cross-purposes are, we admit, inherent in any scheme of the kind. This particular scheme is a compromise of a compromise. Fragments of last year's plan are taken and worked into the new structure. Small wonder that the whole looks rather patchy! Difficulties of all kinds in the working of the measure leap to the eye of one who reads it, but a grand solvent is provided. This is the Shipping Board itself which the bill creates. With the Secretary of the Navy and the Secretary of Commerce members ex-officio, it is to be composed of three Commissioners. Nothing is said of their qualifications, but they will have to be miracles of wisdom and of executive skill if they are to be able to solve all the problems, and discharge all the duties, thrust upon them in the Shipping bill. Its drafters went seemingly on the theory that, whenever they came upon a nut too hard for them to crack, they would deftly refer it to the Shipping Board. That body is to decide what vessels are to be bought, built, chartered, or leased; what routes they are to sail; what rates to charge. If ships are to be sold to the Government, or rented to it, the purchase price or the rental will be fixed by the same infallible Shipping Board. It is even to have authority to say whether ships constructed or purchased under this act shall have an American register or not. On this point, one section of the bill contradicts another. Section 6 plainly declares that "all vessels" within the purview of the act shall be "registered or enrolled under the laws of the United States"; but in section 4, and also in section 5, the statement is that there must be American registry, "unless otherwise authorized and approved by said Board."

This is at least an ambiguity, if it is not a contradiction. And the fact is that the whole bill is filled with ambiguities. Any shipmaster really anxious to invest money under this scheme, and studying the bill to see how he should come out, could not help feeling that he was being led through a labyrinth. At one moment he would find himself in the naval reserve, and the next sailing an independent ship. For a time he would be owner of the ship, but any day might discover that it belonged to the Government, or to a "corporation or corporations" in the District of Columbia, a majority of the capital stock of which was held and voted by the United States. Does not the entire thing call up a huge Circumlocution Office?

It must in fairness be admitted that the present bill is less objectionable than the measure of last year. The outstanding and offensive features of Government ownership and operation of ships are very largely removed. The proponents of the bill declare that the appeal is now primarily to private capital, with nothing but Government aid and Government regulation. But the question is whether private capital can be expected to invest in a scheme so roundabout and with so many "strings" to it. If such proves to be the case, will not the lurking power to place the management of the whole plan in the hands of the Government be exercised? Even supposing that there is no risk of that, those interested in the restora-

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tion of American shipping will ask if this bill is not in danger of falling between two stools. In trying to combine opposites—naval auxiliaries and vessels of commerce—it heaps up difficulties. The details do not seem to have been sufficiently worked out under expert advice. There is, for example, the question of Government colliers. Complaint of them was heard at the recent meeting of the Foreign Trade Council. It was stated that, under long-term contracts, private ship-owners could provide vessels well adapted for coal-carrying. "There is here alone," declared the Council, "room for much official encouragement to the merchant marine without additional expense to the Treasury, and with the probability of an eventual saving." But this is only one point of many. Granting the good intentions of those who framed the bill and are now backing it, the evidence seems to us clear that a great deal of debating of it and much revising of it will be necessary before Congress should think of passing it.

INTERNATIONAL JUDGMENTS.

"Allah has decreed that she shall perish by her own act, from the consequences of the law that she professes, and through her own temperament," says Rudyard Kipling, forecasting the result of the war upon the future of Germany. This is not what England and her allies had desired; it is "the end to which the destinies are forcing us despite all the efforts we have made to avoid it." Accordingly, it cannot quite be said that the erstwhile unofficial "laureate of the Empire" is actually pleased at the thought of an obliterated Germany; but it is quite plain that he views this prospect with at least a quite cheerful resignation. Nowhere does he betray any consciousness that such a consummation would be a grievous loss to the world.

It happens that alongside this statement, in the newspaper containing it, we find an extract from an address by Prof. Kuno Francke, of Harvard, on "Germany's Contribution to Civilization," in which he protests against "the mania of international aspersion and belittlement" engendered by the war. Of the outcome of such mania he could not have pointed to a better example than Kipling's truculence. If the sanity of Professor Francke's defence of Germany and the thoughtless folly of Kipling's talk could be considered representative of English and German thought respectively, it would be a melancholy showing for England. Of course, this is not so. There are Germans who talk like Kipling, and there are Englishmen who talk like Kuno Francke. And when the time comes for a real decision on the issues of the war, it will not be those who write hymns of hate against England, or those who pronounce an easy sentence of death against Germany, that will determine the nature of that decision, but responsible statesmen—men who look to the future and remember the past, not men who are swept from their moorings by the passions of the present.

In the meanwhile, it is inevitable that the "international aspersion and belittlement" of which Kuno Francke speaks shall, in very considerable measure, manifest itself. Many a man who, before the war, was filled with admiration of what is great and fine in German civilization and character, is now inclined to assent to such assertions as arouse Professor Francke's indignation; for example, that "German statesmanship is brutal and insolent, German scholarship heavy and mechanical, German science uninventive and unoriginal." For in behalf of each of these propositions there is a great deal to be said; and it is only human nature that, at a time when we are filled with the horror of what we conceive Germany to have brought upon the world, our minds are open to considerations that bear adversely, rather than those that bear favorably, upon her. Our thought turns naturally to the brutality and insolence of Austria's demands upon Servia, to which Germany was almost certainly privy and which she quite certainly backed up with all her power. The charge against German scholarship is nothing new; what is new is only that many persons who formerly were in the habit of dwelling solely on the German's thoroughness are now inclined to think more about his heaviness. As for the charge of want of originality, that is of course unjust; but in palliation of the offence it may well be urged that it is no more than an offset to the preposterous claims of unrivalled preëminence so widely asserted by the Germans. It does happen to be true, for example, that against the names of Faraday and Darwin and Pasteur Germany can set none of corresponding significance in the opening out of vast fields of scientific progress; and when Germans make their confident assertions of superiority, it is only natural to strike back where the counter-attack can be made so effective.

As a matter of fact, we do not believe that, speaking generally, there is any real forgetfulness of Germany's great qualities and services. She furnishes, and we all hope she will continue to furnish in the future, a contribution in many ways of inestimable value to the human race. Some there are, no doubt, who completely forget this, just as there were some who, in 1870, were capable of thinking that the world would be better off if France were obliterated. How short-sighted, how unspeakably mistaken, was such a view, no one needs to be told to-day; and it is to be hoped that the time will come when the value to the world of the German virtues and the German talents will be in no more need of being insisted upon than is the case to-day with those qualities of the French nation which have been so wonderfully exhibited in the present conflict. But it is not only not matter for regret, it is matter for the keenest satisfaction, that the dominant thought about Germany to-day in this country is not the thought of what she has done for the world, or what she is capable of doing for it, but of what she is threatening to do against the world. Her success would mean not only a military, and not only an economic conquest; it is the unchecked dominance of the German idea that would be by far the greatest of the calamities that German victory would carry with it. The worship of efficiency and system has, with all its benefits, its very bad side even within the German nation itself. If extended throughout a world overshadowed by German power, it would be a veritable pall, the extinguisher of a thousand elements which go to make the beauty, the interest, the variety, the freedom of life. And it is the passionate protest of the human soul against the menace of such a consummation that goes far to account for whatever of extravagance there is in any "aspersion and belittlement" to which Germany has been subjected.

GEOGRAPHY AND NATIONAL DESTINY.

Two news items appearing within as many days, but showing no relation to each other for the hasty reader, do nevertheless lend themselves to a single impression. One is the dramatic story of the Appam. The other is the routine cabled report of the death of an eminent Englishman, Sir Clements Markham, geographer and specialist in the history of exploration. Many of the details of the Appam, its capture by a mysterious raider—at one time the passengers thought they were being attacked by pirates—and the voyage across the Atlantic under a prize crew, hark back at once to the days before wireless, before steam, to the time when

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machinery had not robbed the sea of its romance and resolute spirits of the opportunity for adventure. Like the cruise of the Emden's survivors, the voyage of the Appam goes back almost to the sixteenth century. For the Canary Islands substitute the Spanish Main and we are again with Drake, Hawkins, and their fellows. And here is where Sir Clements Markham comes in. To a good many people his name first calls up the Hakluyt Society, of which he was the guiding spirit for nearly sixty years as secretary and president. And Hakluyt immediately brings up the golden age of English adventure on the sea, those voyages and discoveries of merchant adventurers, slavers, privateers, whose career was one series of Appam exploits magnified, and whose deeds laid the foundation of England's empire of the seas.

There must still be readers old enough to have learned their geography at a time when the flavor of the seas and the continents was not subdued by an intensive study of isobars and isotherms, of glaciation and stratification, of mean annual rainfalls, trade-routes, and areas of wheat and rye production. Geography then meant, to be sure, a faithful catalogue of the boundaries of Hindustan and British Guiana, the coast-lines of peninsulas which we now know to be only the surviving portions of great submerged land-masses, the enumeration of capes and isthmuses that were terribly hard to learn and very easy to forget. But the names that were remembered had a glow that was of the eternal youth of the world—Comorin and Bab-el-Mandeb, Blanco and Verde and Agulhas, Lima and Cartagena and the mouths of the Orinoco. Now we know, after a thorough training in commercial geography, that Drake and Frobisher and Raleigh were only the expression of the economic forces of the age, and that their historic mission consisted in preparing the way for the Cunard Line and the North German Lloyd. So to-day we know that the voyage of the Emden's schooner and the exploits of Weddigen are only incidents in a struggle for the control of the markets of the world. But there must still be people trained in the older school to whom the singeing of the King of Spain's beard and the voyage of Lieut. Mücke's men from the Indies to Hodeida are sufficient ends in themselves, as testifying to the daring and the power that are in man.

On the basis of the Emden and the Appam, the Kaiser's people will no doubt formulate a case against England's claim to maritime dominion by virtue of an inherent English genius for the traffic of the sea. German historians should have no difficulty in pointing out that such gifts for dominion of the sea as lie in the English nature are derived from early Teutonic invaders. Long before England had arrogated to herself the ocean as her peculiar element, the Vikings and Norsemen had driven their ships across the Atlantic and into the Mediterranean. Among the nations as they exist to-day England was not the first to embark upon the sea. The pioneers came from southern Europe. The Breton fishermen had made their way across the Atlantic long before the English landed in Newfoundland. First Portugal and then Spain and then Holland were masters of the trade-routes, and if they gave way to England it was not entirely because their Continental position made them unequal competitors against an island nation. Or, rather, their Continental position did divert part of their energies from the sea, but the fact is not decisive as to their inherent incapacity for maintaining dominion on the waters, such as William II has set out to achieve.

It was a visit to Paris that spurred on Richard Hakluyt to compile the "Principall Navigations, Voiages and Discoveries of the English Nation." And he was incited thereto by hearing and reading, while in France, "other nations miraculously extolled for their discoveries and notable enterprises by sea, but the English of all others for their sluggish security and continual neglect of the like attempts, either ignominiously reported or exceedingly condemned, and not seeing any man to have care to recommend to the world the industrious labors and painful travels of our countrymen." In other words, there was a time when other nations were more inclined than England to emphasize their heritage of the seas as a consciously recognized destiny. If in the course of time they fell behind, it was in part due to the conflict of other interests, in part to the lack of foresight on the part of their statesmen. In our own case, the disappearance of the merchant flag from the ocean can hardly be explained by the loss of American genius for seamanship in the course of half a century. Other factors enter. The lost faculty may be regained. For many years the nations of the Continent acquiesced in Britain's claims to special aptitudes for the sea, a claim reinforced by facts. Not the least significant phase of the present conflict is Germany's deliberate challenge of this doctrine of manifest destiny.

Foreign Correspondence

REVOLUTION AT WESTMINSTER.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, January 22.

The accomplishment of two revolutions in a single week brings this country within measurable distance of Mexico in its palmiest days. It is true our revolutions have been bloodless and have been confined to legislative achievement. They are nevertheless of grave, far-reaching importance. A fundamental principle of the British Constitution is that the life of a Parliament shall be limited in duration, terminating at a specified date, giving the constituencies opportunity to exercise their birthright as final arbiters of home and foreign policy. In past history this principle has only once been flouted, and every schoolboy has been taught to regard the Long Parliament with contempt and dislike. This week the House of Lords has put the seal of its approval on a bill unanimously carried through the Commons extending the life of the present Parliament by eight months, with promise of further extension, should it be found necessary.

The case is more striking, since one of its first acts was to repeal the Septennial act lopping off two years from its own life. Had the venerable statute been left as it was found when the present House of Commons assembled no difficulty would have arisen. Counting from this month there would still remain two years, a period beyond which the most pessimistic do not look for extension of the war. However, the thing was done and had to be undone. A Ministry fresh from a poll that had given it a substantial majority was so impressed with admiration for the Democracy that it insisted upon increasing the Democracy's opportunity for taking a hand in direction of state affairs, clothing it with authority every five years instead of every seven. Eight months more or less, even a year or two, is a matter of detail. What has been deliberately established is that the House of Commons may, if it pleases, reëlect itself for an extended term without the formality of going to the poll.

The other revolution practically accomplished within a week that has seen the Military Service bill through committee is the establishment of the principle of conscription. That the British army, with a service record that need not fear comparison with the battle-roll of Continental nations, was created and maintained upon the basis of voluntary enlistment was one of the things of which John Bull in pharisaic mood was accustomed to boast with extreme unction. A year ago, even six months ago, the idea of conscription, albeit muffled up in the hood of compulsory service for unmarried men, was warmly scouted. The class of citizens immediately affected never thought that they would live to be sent to the front, possibly to die in the trenches. For a long time certain members of the Cabinet resisted proposals to make the plunge. They eagerly seized at the expedient of Lord Derby's recruiting scheme, which at least promised delay. That was their undoing. When it demonstrated the failure of the voluntary system to provide and maintain a force sufficient to carry on the war to the appointed end, the voluntary system was

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dead. Not the least remarkable thing in a movement Lord Roberts did not live to see was the quickness and thoroughness with which the final stage was passed. Recognizing the inevitable, the nation, with habitual good sense, promptly accepted it. As debates and divisions in committee this week have shown, the conscientious objectors to the new departure do not muster more than half a hundred. Nor can it be said of these that all are hostile to the bill.

Third in the series, something partaking of the nature of a revolution has been forthcoming in demonstration of the new relations established between Ireland and her sister-country. Most of us remember the attitude assumed by Ireland during the Boer War, and maintained by the large majority of its representatives in the House of Commons. A vacancy happening to occur in the representation of Galway, the electors unanimously adopted a candidate of whom they knew nothing, except that he was in South Africa fighting under the Boer flag against the hated British. There was a memorable scene in the House of Commons when, news arriving of an exceptionally disastrous repulse of British arms, an excitable Irish member, emulous of the little hills, clapped his hands for joy. This was a condition of affairs of which the Kaiser, his plan of campaign not yet quite completed, took note. It had much to do with its final development. What chance would an Irishman fighting under the German flag in Flanders have of being returned for Galway or any other Irish borough suppose a vacancy just now occurred?

As to the attitude of the Irish Nationalist members under the leadership of Mr. Redmond, it has, with undesigned but effective dramatic effect, been displayed in debate this week on the Military Service bill. The Ulster members, resenting the exclusion of Ireland from the measure, moved an amendment in committee eliminating the condition. It seemed for a while that occasion was provided for a fresh outburst of the hereditary hostility between Ulster and its southern neighbors. The member for Belfast had the support of his Ulster colleagues for his amendment. There was a large muster of Irish Nationalists prepared to resist any tendency on the part of the Government towards indecision.

An innocent-looking arrangement casually made by that master of parliamentary strategy, the Prime Minister, did much to avert collision. He had himself introduced the bill, and in accordance with common practice might have been expected to pilot it through committee. Pleading pressure of other business, he felt compelled to nominate a deputy. There was one at hand in the Irish Secretary. Question of the inclusion or exclusion of Ireland from purview of the bill directly concerned his department. The Premier, passing by Mr. Birrell, left matters in the hands of the Colonial Secretary. Cynical-minded persons were disposed to discern in this strategy a reflex of tactics attributed to the Germans in their march through Belgium on their way to Paris. They are said to have placed in the vanguard groups of Belgian citizens, male and female, thus embarrassing the firing-line of the enemy. A Unionist *pur sang*, Mr. Bonar Law, could not be suspected of disloyalty to the Unionist cause. If his old colleagues and former followers fired away at the Ministry on this question they would hit him.

Whether fully designed or accidental, this arrangement proved a great success. Mr. Bonar Law controlled a delicate situation with surpassing skill. Admitting that he was in sympathy with the principle of the amendment, he set forth the urgent need that it should not be insisted upon. Sir Edward Carson followed on the same lines. Mr. Redmond exultantly declared that the overwhelming sentiment of Irish people is for the first time with the Empire. The only note of discord came from the conscientious objectors below the Gangway on the Liberal side, who, refusing permission to withdraw the amendment, insisted on negativing it. But the battle was already won, a dangerous situation averted.

THE PAPAL CONSISTORY OF DECEMBER 6.

By HOMER EDMISTON.

MILAN, December 21, 1915.

In my letter to the *Nation* of October 14 (pp. 456-457), I said that my information was then that rumors of a Consistory to be held very soon were premature; that, on the contrary, it was not likely that one would take place before November, and that at any rate a Consistory in the near future would not be signalized by the nomination of Italian or foreign Cardinals.

The event has shown that this information was in the main correct. It is true that in the Consistory which is the subject of the present letter six new Cardinals were created, five Italians and one Austrian. But it is to be observed that I spoke then of a Consistory to be held possibly, though not probably, in the near future; and that in the meantime a Cardinal of the Curia, Lorenzelli, has died.

The appointment of the Austrian, Frühwirth, could hardly give satisfaction in Italy at this time, but the press comments have been less numerous, and less animated, than was to be expected. Well-informed persons at once pointed out that Frühwirth has passed many years of his life in Italy, and it has even been asserted that his sentiments are more Latin than German. As General of the Dominican Order, moreover, and as Nunzio at Munich, he could hardly be passed over except for those purely political reasons that are supposed to have little weight with the Holy See.

As an offset to this appointment, that of Mgr. Cagliero, titular Archbishop of Sebaste and Apostolic Delegate to Central America, has caused the liveliest satisfaction. Cardinal Cagliero is one of the noblest sons of Italy in our time. Going in 1884 as Vicar Apostolic to northern Patagonia, he extended his untiring activities to Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Chili, founding everywhere houses of the Salesian order, of which he is the first member to be made Archbishop and the first to be made Cardinal. The President of Argentina, Gen. Roca, was wont to call him "the Civilizer of the South." And an Italian newspaper of Buenos Aires wrote of him that "neither hardship, nor poverty, nor danger could quell the ardor or weaken the fibre of this soldier who fights in the name of civilization, and of the material and moral well-being of the people committed to his charge. The labors of the Salesians, guided by Mgr. Cagliero, have transformed Patagonia."

The case of Mgr. Mistrangelo, Archbishop of Florence, whose see has a traditional claim on the cardinalate, is peculiar. It seems that Leo XIII, towards the end of his reign, put his name in a list of Cardinals he intended to create, when the present Pope, then Mgr. Della Chiesa of the Secretariate of State, objected that he was very ill and probably would not live. Mistrangelo was not in fact dangerously ill and soon recovered, but Pius X, who cared little for tradition, never saw fit to appoint him. Now Benedict XV repairs his own involuntary error.

The other three, Scapinelli, Nunzio to Austria-Hungary, Gusmini, Archbishop of Bologna, and Tenti, formerly Nunzio to Portugal, are personages of no great importance. Of Scapinelli, who is said to be of strong Austrian sympathies, and of Tenti it may be said, as of Frühwirth, that the cardinalate usually awaits the holders of first-class nunziatures. Gusmini receives the purple that traditionally belongs to his see from Benedict XV, who, it will be remembered, as Archbishop of Bologna, was made to wait for his red hat until less than four months before his election to the papal throne.

But the Consistory of December 6, 1915, will be important in history, much more than for the Cardinals named, for the allocution pronounced therein; and this importance consists, unfortunately, in a great political failure. The Latapie incident (see *Nation* of October 14, p. 456, and of November 11, p. 565) had been satisfactorily ended, and in the certainty that the Pope's personal sympathies and moral convictions were on their side, the Italian people and their allies were expecting from him a word of leadership and command. Their disappointment, as shown in the Italian, French, and English press, is widespread and profound. The Pope's arguments and recommendations are indeed so obviously feeble and inconclusive that journals in these countries of every complexion from Socialist to extreme Conservative, excepting, of course, those avowedly clerical, adopt the same tone and often the same language in exposing his errors. Benedict XV has shown that, in spite of some excellent reforms of a purely ecclesiastical nature, he is great neither in intellect nor in character. On the other hand, it is only fair to say that perhaps no other Pope since Sixtus V would have been equal to the situation in which he finds himself.

After observing, as was to be expected, that he is the earthly Vicar of the Prince of Peace, he recalls a letter which he addressed to the belligerent nations on the anniversary of the outbreak of the war, in which he said that the only way whereby a just and lasting peace could be concluded was by mutual concessions on the part of all the Powers involved; that the aspirations of all must be considered and in some degree realized.*

It is strange indeed that a man with a reputation for political insight could deliberately offer such a suggestion. The best

*In this ill-starred document the Pope did not even quote himself correctly. In the letter mentioned he spoke indeed of taking into account "the rights and just aspirations of nationalities" as a means of bringing the war to an end (*Nation*, October 14, p. 457). But he said nothing about mutual concessions to be made by all the Powers involved, nor is it to be supposed that he means even now that Belgium and Servia should make concessions.

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explanation seems to be that, counselled by Cardinal Hartmann, Archbishop of Cologne, who attended this Consistory, not to offend Germany and Austria, he tried to propitiate them by implying that their aspirations (*e. g.*, to "a place in the sun," to Belgium, Servia, and to parts of France, Russia, and Italy), were as just as anybody's aspirations. He must know as well as anybody that the Allies have nothing to concede, and that a European peace, based by their victory on principles of right and freedom, will be in the end for the good also of the Central Empires. He speaks, in other words, as if this were a seventeenth or eighteenth century war of territorial aggrandizement, in which the contending Powers could be satisfied by mutual territorial concessions, instead of a fateful struggle between two opposing types of civilization and government. And he advocates a peace which would be nothing but a hollow and hypocritical truce, during which the enemies of to-day would make themselves ready for a decisive conflict.

As if mistakes in judgment were not enough, the Pope must even put himself in the wrong on matters of fact. Recalling his own and his predecessors' lamentations on the curtailment of the liberties of the Roman See caused by its political status, he maintains that such disabilities are augmented by the existing state of war. "Certainly," he admits, "the men who now govern Italy have shown themselves disposed to remove the difficulties. But this very fact proves that the status of the Roman Pontiff depends upon the civil authorities, and may be changed, and changed for the worse, by political vicissitudes and successions in office. . . . Passing over other cases," he went on to say, "certain Ambassadors and Ministers, accredited to us by their sovereigns, were compelled to depart in order to safeguard their personal dignity and the prerogatives of their office. This means for the Holy See the invasion of an inherent right and the weakening of a necessary guarantee, as well as the lack of its ordinary means of treating with foreign governments. In this connection we have to remark, to our great sorrow, that the nations opposed to Italy in this war have come to suspect that we allow ourselves to be guided only by those who can make us hear their voices."

On the evening of the same day (December 6) the Stefani Agency published the following official communication from the Italian Government:

"The words of the Pontiff concerning the Ambassadors and Ministers accredited to the Holy See, according to which they were compelled to leave Italy in order to safeguard their personal dignity, must be due to inexact information.

"The fact is, on the contrary, that the representatives of the Central Empires, in spite of the most positive assurances of this Government with respect to their personal dignity and the privileges belonging to them according to law, of their own free will decided to absent themselves from Rome." (See *Nation* of July 8.)

The Pope's utterance as quoted was objectionable in a number of ways. In spite of its full and generous recognition of the good faith of the Ministers now in power, it raises the old question, intolerable to every Italian patriot, of securing the liberty and independence of the Papacy by an international guarantee. I need not repeat what I have said on this subject before, except to say that, after the forty-five years in which the Law of Guarantees has been faithfully observed by Ministers of every party, it is by this time a soundly established principle in Italian politics that "the Roman question" is exclusively an Italian question in which the interference of no foreign Power will be tolerated.

It seems likely that the Pope was partly moved to such expressions by a desire to answer some statements made on the Law of Guarantees in a speech at Palermo by Signor Orlando, the Minister of Justice. But he only laid himself open to correction by the Government in his statement of fact, and in his arguments by Orlando himself in a parliamentary discourse, and by every publicist in and out of Italy who has chosen to write on the subject.

It is pointed out, for example, that any difficulties the Papal Government may suffer are merely an incident to a state of war in which all the greater, and some of the lesser, European nations are engaged; nor is it easy to imagine a political status in which it would not be at least as badly off as it is now. It has happened, also, that at no Consistory ever held in Rome were there present so large a number of foreign Cardinals as at this last one. Among these was Cardinal Hartmann, Archbishop of Cologne, who is strongly suspected of having had a mission from the German Government, and who is known to have had an interview with von Bülow in Switzerland on his way down. There were no Austrian Cardinals in attendance, if we exclude Frühwirth, who was one of the newly elected, and it is strongly suspected that they were forbidden to come by their Government, which wished to make it appear that they were not free to come and go in Italy. This has been officially denied by the Vatican with the statement that the Austrian Cardinals had expressed no desire to come and also had not been invited. Nothing was said, of course, about why they had expressed no desire to come, and why they had not been invited.

The fact that, since the war began, one Conclave and two Consistories have been held in Rome without the slightest difficulty, leads one of the best-informed Vatican correspondents to conclude that the Pope's declarations in question were merely *pro forma*. Even if this be true, their effect was none the less unfortunate. Formal declarations, if repeated often enough, may come to lose their formal character.

After the Consistory Cardinal Hartmann called on all his colleagues resident in Rome, and among them on Cardinal Gasquet, the learned English Benedictine. "Your Eminence, let us not talk of war," said Cardinal Hartmann. "Your Eminence, let us not talk of peace," promptly replied Cardinal Gasquet. The allusion was, of course, to the more than suspected nature of Hartmann's mission to Rome, but it is only one of a number of signs of strong opposition in the Sacred College to the peace programme of the Pope. In the Milan *Secolo* of to-day there is a well authenticated dispatch from Rome which says that Cardinal Maffi, Archbishop of Pisa, has lately called at the Vatican to express his opposition to this pacifist propaganda, and that he was bidden by the Pope not to make public this dissension, but to continue his patriotic work without heeding the policy of the Vatican, which is of necessity different from that of the Italian bishops.

THE PRESS IN FRANCE—CENSORSHIP AND PROPAGANDA.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, January 25.

The manifold Government services of the press have just been centralized in a single building at the side of the American Relief Clearing House. The juxtaposition is fortuitous; that is, it happened so. It has been no easy task for the French Government to find local habitations in Paris for all its new offices, made necessary by the war. The sanitary services were long scattered about Paris at great distances from each other, to their disadvantage. So far as possible, they have been gathered under one roof with their Under Secretary of State in a vast new hotel with an English name, which was to have been opened when war interrupted everything.

The press departments, also, have hitherto been scattered. Censorship was attached to the War Office; official information, as before the war, was given out at the Foreign Office; there was a propaganda office near the Opéra; and near the Palais Royal were official photographs and cinema films; and there were yet other services. Although the distance from one of these places to the other might be reckoned by miles, yet, on the whole, things were arranged with as little inconvenience for foreign correspondents as might be. There was variety, which is the spice of life, in going from one to the other.

Some enemy, who managed to get off Paris letters to Berlin papers, made a myth of the propaganda plant. It was very modest and, I fear, not patronized as it deserved. Last spring a sort of stand-up tea was begun there; and it was certainly very pleasant to meet other press-men, French and foreign, with public-minded notabilities once a week, and let talk range from the prospect in the trenches to the prospects of civilization.

Official publications were to be had, with little books of documents of immediate controversy. But, so far as I can judge from copies of foreign newspapers, there has been comparatively little effort made by the Allies to "advertise" their cause. Like other inferiorities, this is to their credit. Taken by surprise, France has had to defend her homes against the strong man already armed from years of "preparedness." Among neutrals, she has relied—perhaps too much at times—on the plain justice of her cause and the good-will of the foreign press.

Personally, I have been struck by one thing. German news agencies, sometimes dating their dispatches from Scandinavia or Spain, make multitudinous announcements favorable to themselves or unfavorable to the Allies—and such announcements find their way into neutral papers and are brought out in relief. Then, when official communications arrive which might correct them, they have already entered into the minds of men, and the contradiction passes unnoticed.

Col. Feyler, the Swiss military critic, has fished out many instances in his line from these German agency dispatches. Thus, adding up the prisoners reported to have been

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taken day by day, he finds that the Russian army must have lost to the Germans something like 5,000,000 men! In the long-range bombardment of the city of Nancy recently, it was persistently reported, even in France, that any number of the civil population had been destroyed. The Prefect was obliged to put out a peremptory statement that only five had been killed and about as many wounded, although there had been a considerable destruction of property. Until Government decided to publish the exact number of victims of Zeppelins in England, reports were circulated obstinately that there had been as many as fifteen hundred victims in one raid over London.

It is the duty of the *censure* to see that such reports do not get published in France—which is a very different thing from the supposed suppression of real losses in war. In fact, the serious objections to the censorship which have been made in France by men like Senator Clemenceau concern, not the suppression of military news, but the extension of the *censure* to opposition to Government or mere criticism of military authorities. No doubt, the censor's work is delicate in the extreme among a people accustomed to absolute liberty of the press—and of opposition to every one and everything.

A first duty is to prevent the untimely publication of news which might give intelligence to the enemy. In the War of 1870, an English correspondent was notoriously responsible for a French defeat.

After this plain military duty, the censor is also bound to see that the French people are not unduly dismayed by floating rumors or elated by false triumphs sure to end in reaction when the truth becomes known. How such rumors start up, Germany might often be able to explain. A German, living on ample means of unknown origin, has just been imprisoned here. In the confusing first days of war, he managed to procure a certificate as an American citizen under a well-known American name, and had been living here at freedom ever since.

As to other offices of the censor—just how far, for example, he should go in suppressing publications tending to turn the people against authority and to violate the "Sacred Union" of all those who are striving as one man for their lives—it does not belong to a foreigner to judge. I can only say that my own letters sent by mail, and so far as I know those of other American correspondents, have never suffered from the French *censure*. The time they take on the way is thought to guard sufficiently against indiscretion, which would be obsolete before arrival. It is not the same, I hear, in Germany, where they are anxious to control opinion as well as news. As to cablegrams, I hear no complaints among my colleagues either of lack of courtesy or of fair play.

The new director of all these now united press services is M. Jules Gautier, who was so long at the head of the high-school education of France in the Ministry of Public Instruction.

I must also protest once more against a harmful notion which seems to be set afloat constantly in neutral countries. It is said—particularly by pacifists who cannot explain why the French will have none of their German peace—that the people are kept in ignorance of what is really going on. Now Paris papers report attacks and criticisms of the German press at least; and they are almost too profuse in reproducing anything that seems novel in American papers. They have French information first, as is natural; but I do not see that they are more one-sided than neutral journals. Both sides are heard, sooner or later—and very many neutrals stoutly maintain there is but one side in this war of aggression. Again, the Swiss daily papers published in the French language are sold freely at every other newsstand in Paris and other French cities. They give, literally, German official *communiqués* and Wolff dispatches—besides their own very completely informed criticism. Certainly, all intelligent French men and women can form impartial opinions for themselves with the means ready to hand.

Notes from the Capital

LOUIS D. BRANDEIS.

There is a haunting quality in the face of Louis Dembitz Brandeis which was more vivid when I first saw it, about a dozen years ago, than it is now, but not till some time had passed was I able to define it. Then, happening upon a portrait of Abraham Lincoln, taken at the same age, I recognized the resemblance. The nose was different, Brandeis's being his most obviously Hebraic feature, whereas Lincoln's was distinctly a gentile organ; but the shape of the face, the growth of the hair in a shock which calls for taming by discipline from without, the mild expression with the instinct of pugnacity behind it held in restraint, the drawn-in corners of the mouth, the contemplative, perhaps prophetic, eyes under lids that if left to themselves would droop—all these things are paralleled so well in the two men that a composite portrait would probably show little blurring of the lines. Lincoln's face, also, was a haunting one. I saw it only a little while before his first inauguration, and it lingers still in my mind, though I was a mere schoolboy at the time. The beard, which is so conspicuous an element in the portraits familiar to the younger generation of to-day, had just begun to grow. His earlier portraits show him beardless, as Brandeis is. Lincoln had a way of slouching down in his chair when not actively engaged at something, and so has Brandeis; this makes further for the resemblance in their general physiognomy, particularly when Brandeis, in a lolling position, lets his chin half rest on his breast.

Lincoln was most noted for his leadership of men, Brandeis for his advocacy of causes and his energy as a propagandist. If any one had nominated Lincoln for a high judicial office, demanding calm and dispassionate judgment on questions involving individual rights, rather than the larger human rights, the establishment of permanent legal precedents, and the scrupulous linking of any forward movement of his own along a certain line with the last stage of his predecessors' progress along the same line, the proposal would have drawn forth as vigorous a protest as has the nomination of Brandeis for a seat on the Federal Supreme bench, and no small part of the uproar would have proceeded from quarters where sympathy with the ideals cherished by the nominee was beyond cavil as to sincerity. It would have been based on the not unreasonable assumption that you waste good material, and improve neither the victim nor his environment, when you transplant a skilled mechanic from his shop into a sculptor's studio, or set a sculptor to building stone bridges. The imaginative faculty which so broadens the product of one worker must be reduced to a minimum exercise in the work of another, and the obverse. Judicial capacity is a thing quite by itself, and public opinion insists that it must not be confounded with capacity of any other sort. There are many positions of honor and trust in the public service where a propagandist, or an earnest political partisan and leader, would fit very well, and could accomplish much, without undermining a common sentiment of confidence.

One of the facts which one hears cited on every side as an evidence of pharisaism in Brandeis is most unjustly thus attributed. I refer to his refusal to accept compensation for doing certain things in the line of his profession, but primarily helpful to the community at large. It is within the knowledge of his inner circle of friends that he and Mrs. Brandeis, when they were first married, decided, as a rule to govern their lives, not to let pecuniary considerations influence them in any matter in which their hearts and consciences were enlisted, and they simply have applied that rule so as to make it work both ways, for either profit or loss.

Comparatively recent history has been sprinkled with cases which in one way or another suggest analogies with the nomination of Brandeis. President Grant's effort to promote Caleb Cushing comes at once to mind, the objection urged against Cushing being that he had been not too much, but too many different kinds, of a partisan to fill acceptably a high judicial office. There, also, were the two prominent New Yorkers whom, in succession, Cleveland struggled to put into the chair left vacant by the death of Justice Blatchford, but whose rejection was compassed, through Senatorial courtesy, by "Dave" Hill and "Ed" Murphy, who disliked their aggressive mugwumpery. It will be remembered, moreover, that the defeat of Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham resulted in the transfer of Mr. White, our present Chief Justice, from the Senate, where he had been the most efficient tariff exponent of the Louisiana sugar interests, to the serene atmosphere of the bench.

Aside from any question of the wisdom or unwisdom of Mr. Brandeis's nomination in itself considered, there is general regret here that the President should have chosen this particular time to throw a bone of contention in among the multitude of citizens whose support, regardless of conventional party lines, he is soliciting in the crisis our foreign relations have reached. Old-fashioned politicians read in the nomination a bait for the Hebrew vote at the coming election, others of the more modern type interpret it as a coquettish move in the courtship of the now disorganized remnant of the Progressive party. Among the non-politicians, the President's motive is assumed to be a desire to break through the traditions of the court before they have hardened into absolute immobility, and to procure for the cause of "social justice" a hearing in the private councils of the judges as well as at their public sessions as a tribunal. Whatever view may be right, Mr. Brandeis cannot be sneered out of the field; his enemies will have to fight him with the weapons of reason, and not of contempt or innuendo. TATTLER.

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Turkey Under the Young Turks

FOREIGN RELATIONS DURING THE LAST SEVEN YEARS, AND THE WAR CONSIDERED AS ONE FOR THE REVERSION OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

By E. G. TABET, M.D.

The present European struggle is not due to any one cause, but to many. There are those who believe, however, that it is in its chief motive a war for the reversion of Turkey. For many decades a general European conflagration over the long-coveted heritage of the Sick Man of Europe has been an ever-threatening possibility, and this seemed never as near, perhaps, as in the last few years, since the Great Powers had become divided into the two main camps of the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance, with Turkey, under its new rulers, the Young Turks, defiantly persisting in her provocative policy of playing off the Powers against each other.

It will be the object of this article to present, first, a brief review of Turkish foreign relations in the last seven years—that is, during the period when Turkey's destinies have been practically controlled by the Young Turks, and, secondly, a résumé of the reasons why this present struggle in Europe may be seriously considered as being in its origin and in its chief motive a war for Turkey's reversion.

I.

English influence, which for decades had ruled supreme in the Turkish capital, met its first rude shock some twenty years ago, when England intervened to put an end to the unspeakable Armenian massacres of 1895 and 1896. German diplomacy availed itself of the occasion to win further the good graces of the Red Sultan by opposing the English policy of intervention, greatly contributing thereby to its collapse, since England was still at the time in her "splendid isolation." From that time until Abdul Hamid's downfall, after the Turkish military *coup d'état* in 1908, German influence ruled paramount in Constantinople; in fact, Baron von Bieberstein, the German Ambassador to Turkey, was the power behind the throne.

With the installation of the new régime, however, the Young Turks professed deep attachment to the Entente Powers, giving the impression that they would have Turkey again be guided by England. England, on her side, evinced her willingness to accept the responsibility. To encourage the Young Turks and to give them a free hand in the management of their internal affairs, the Reval programme of reforms for Macedonia, which had been agreed upon by King Edward and Czar Nicholas as a substitute for the obsolete Austro-Russian accord of Mürsteg, was spontaneously withdrawn. Further, it was England's determined stand, more than anything else, that forced Baron Aerenthal to indemnify Turkey for her loss of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which Austria-Hungary, backed by Germany, had summarily annexed.

France showed an equally sympathetic attitude, M. Clemenceau, the Premier at the time, rivalling Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey in his enthusiastic declarations regarding the new régime. French loans were advanced even when Turkey's affairs were still unsettled; in fact, when her whole future looked desperately critical.

All this, however, was not appreciated and was soon forgotten. Complaints were even made by the Young Turks that the Entente Powers had not done enough, that they should have gone to war with the Central Empires. Next murmurs were heard that Germany should not have been estranged, and gradually a pro-German attitude was assumed by the more chauvinistic of the press of Constantinople.

The truth of the matter is, however, that the Young Turks had lost their heads by the sudden acquisition of almost absolute power, which caused them to assume a most independent attitude. As though to impress the Powers with their independence and absolute authority in the state's affairs they forced the Cabinet of Kiamel Pasha out of office, replacing it by inexperienced young men from their Committee Organization. This step, so rashly taken, actually marks an eventful page in Turkish history. For one thing, it estranged England, Kiamel Pasha being her friend and protégé; and for another, it threw Turkey's destinies once again into Germany's hands—a coincidence of events which ultimately led to Turkey's entrance into the present war.

With the reins of government in their hands, the Young Turks threw off the veil, and the erstwhile seemingly unassuming patriots became a camarilla obsessed with morbid ideas of nationalism. Internal reconstruction, foreign relations, the good will of the Entente Powers, all were ignored and neglected for the attainment of one object, namely, the execution of that part of the Young Turks' political programme relating to the abrogation of the international treaties, known as the "Capitulations." The materialization of pan-Islamism as a political factor in Turkey's foreign relations was another object towards which they worked with no less impatience and tactless zeal. This programme touched the interests of the Entente Powers, and of Russia in its two parts, all three having under them millions of Moslem subjects. German interests, on the other hand, would be affected, in common with those of the other Powers, by one part only, namely, the abrogation of the "Capitulations." These privileges Germany was disposed to relinquish for substantial concessions in many other ways. Here she had the cards, and she played them well, using the morbid sentimentalism of the Young Turks to her own advantage, but to Turkey's detriment. This seemingly sympathetic attitude on the part of Germany, which in reality had no material value to it, made the other Powers appear as unfriendly to Turkey, and in consequence as ill-disposed towards Islam. Both Germany and the Young Turks used every occasion as it arose to impress this allegation of unfriendliness upon the Moslem world. With Germany's supposed complaisance thus gained, the Young Turks would have the other Powers surrender to their whims and wishes. The policy they resorted to was silly, if not grotesque: Abdul Hamid's old game of playing off the Powers against each other. Flirtations, cheap methods of bargaining, threats of boycotts and of fomenting Islamic sedition, all these were indulged in to the limit, at which the supreme patience of the Entente Powers became exhausted. At last the hour of reckoning came, and Turkey had to pay the penalty of the ill-advised policy and acts of its irresponsible rulers.

With the consent and assistance of the Entente Powers the long-disputed Cretan question was at last solved by Greece annexing the island. France, since she resented the Young Turks' provocative dealings with Germany at her expense, despite previous French loans, refused Turkey further financial assistance. Appeals to England resulted likewise in failure. Then came the Turco-Italian complication regarding Tripoli, when Turkish entreaties to Sir Edward Grey that he intercede at Rome to have Italy's demands moderated received from him the significant answer that it was too late. Russia fostered and let loose the Balkan League, which at Lule Burgas and at Komonovo greatly shook the traditional martial reputation of the Turk. Again Turkey implored, but received the same answer as before—that Turkey awakens only after it is too late.

Meanwhile, Germany, the self-titled Protector of Islam and the patron of the Young Turks, took only a negative stand. Thus, concerning the Cretan dispute, she did no more than keep aloof from the joint naval demonstration by the Powers. Also, in regard to the Turkish difficulties with Italy, despite desperate entreaties at Berlin by the Young Turks, the Kaiser's unconsoling answer was that further representations at Rome could not be made, for fear that Italy might break away from the Triple Alliance.

But the most unkindest cut was yet to come. Helplessly paralyzed by her Balkan *débâcle*, Turkey begged for the Emperor's mediation, but received instead his advice that she accept without delay Europe's decision. To be sure, this was sound advice, but it certainly fell very short of what the Young Turks had the right to expect from the professed guardian of the Empire of the Ottomans and the protector of Islam. Turkey's plight was now desperate. Beaten to the ground by her enemies, forsaken by her new friends, left to her fate by the old ones whom her new rulers had provoked to exasperation, threat-

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ened with internal unrest by widespread movements of reform, and, above all, with an empty treasury, the Empire of Mohammed and Suleiman seemed on the verge of the long-expected collapse.

At this point, and when there was no reason for hope, the Entente Powers once more came to the rescue. Through their endeavors the victorious Balkan Allies had their demands greatly moderated. The Enos-Midia line, despite Bulgaria's insistence and Austria's underhand policy, was left in Turkish possession. Further, the Balkan States were made to bear a part of the Turkish national debt, corresponding with the territory they had annexed. French diplomacy exerted itself to win Anglo-Russian acquiescence for Turkey's retaining Adrianople, which the Turks, taking advantage of Bulgaria's plight in the second Balkan war, had reoccupied without a fight and contrary to the Treaty of London. A French loan was also advanced, and more was promised. Indeed, the Entente seemed anxious to assist Turkey in every way. A reform movement in Syria, which threatened to disturb Turkey's tranquillity, lost its revolutionary tendencies mainly through Anglo-French temporizing influence. M. Stephen Pichon, then French Foreign Minister, in an audience which he accorded to the special delegation representing the movement, declared in part: "Your reform aspirations have my sympathy, but will only continue to have it so long as your movement is kept within pacific limits, and in so far as your aspirations agree with the general welfare of the Turkish Empire." He added with emphasis: "The principle of our policy, like that of our friend, England, is to help Turkey all we can to safeguard her integrity."

Ex-Ministers, Senators, Deputies, presidents of political societies, publicists, editors, all expressed the same idea and spirit —an attitude, it may be said in passing, which discouraged further activities on the part of the leaders of the movement. This is direct knowledge obtained by the writer as a member of the delegation, and may be said, therefore, to convey a true impression of the sympathetic attitude of French public opinion towards Turkey as it then existed, that is, only a few months before the outbreak of the war in Europe, in which Turkey chose to join France's enemies.

II.

With the changes in the politico-geographical map of the Balkans, the interests of the Great Powers in relation to Turkey had likewise undergone radical changes, making the question of Turkish integrity a matter of deep concern for the Entente Powers. On the other hand, rumors gained currency that Germany, deeming Turkey's friendship no longer profitable, was not unwilling to discuss the partition of the Ottoman Empire. Whether or not there was any foundation for this rumor, it was a plausible assumption that Germany was really so disposed. For one reason, she was professedly in need of new possessions for her overcrowded population, and Asia Minor, already economically half-German, would make an ideal colony. So long as Turkey was in possession of her European territory, contiguous on the European side with Austria-Hungary, Germany's ally, and on the other side with Asia Minor, Germany had sanguine hopes of realizing some day her great ambition, namely, the construction of a railway to connect the North Sea with the Persian Gulf, tapping on its way the resourceful plains and valleys of central Europe and western Asia. In other words, so long as there was hope for so incomparable an enterprise, she could abide her time until she should be in a position to dictate to Europe the terms of Turkey's partition, or until she could so control Turkey as to reduce her to the status of a mere German dependency. This hope was shattered, however, when European Turkey passed over to the Balkan States, and as a consequence Germany's interests became confined to Asia Minor, where she already had a huge sum invested in her Konia-Bagdad railway. Unless, however, the economic concession carried with it also political control, no full development of that country would be practicable, and this huge investment would in all probability prove unprofitable, if not a total failure.

But this was where Anglo-French interests conflicted with German interests in the dismemberment of Turkey. For, with Asia Minor falling to Germany, as was natural by the order of things, the partition would be unequal, Asia Minor being the lion's share. And even though this might be overlooked as a secondary consideration, the strategic side of the question would still remain of supreme importance. By this territorial acquisition, Germany, for one thing, would be brought near to India, and for another, new Russo-German and Franco-German frontiers would be created, through Armenia and Syria falling to Russia and France, respectively, as their share of the spoils—a new order of things not desired by Russia or the Entente.

But above all was the question of Germany's entrance as a naval Power into the Mediterranean, which would naturally follow her acquisition of a foothold in Turkey.

In this conflict between Germany's interests in the reversion of Turkey, on the one hand, and the Entente's and Russia's interests in her integrity, on the other, may be found, as I see it, the original cause of the war and the chief motive for it. And in Germany's conclusion that her present preparedness for the coming struggle—inevitable since these Powers would not play her cards —could not surpass itself, while delay on her part would find her opponents better prepared, may be found the reason for the precipitation of the war. That the struggle came upon the Allies suddenly and unexpectedly is true, but there had nevertheless been plenty of premonitory signs of it in the year 1913, that is, the year of the Balkan Wars, and the months following. That something of a grave nature was going on below the surface, which the Entente Powers were nervous about and were trying hard to avert, may be inferred from many things. Thus, it may be asked if the evident feeling of concern by France and England over Turkey's demoralization, following the Balkan War, was due only to their anxiety over the future of their interests already involved, or to a still more vital matter, namely, some German move visualizing the precipitation of the Eastern Question. Also, were the provocative ways of Germany as regards international matters relating to Turkey—which were then expressed in her attitude of opposition to the Armenian reforms, championed by Russia and subscribed to by England and France—only a part of her general policy to humor Turkish susceptibilities, or were they a means of forcing the hands of the Powers to a dismemberment of Turkey, as a last resort to end once for all the chronic international friction which her existence was ever causing? Further, were the Anglo-German accord in regard to the Konia-Bagdad railway, looked to for so long with anxiety by England, and other politico-economical interests in Turkey, as well as the Franco-German and the Russo-German pourparlers on similar matters, only a step towards relieving the chronic oppressive tension in Europe, or was all that a complaisance on the part of these Powers in order to avert the precipitation of the long and much-dreaded Eastern Question which they suspected or even had reasons to believe that Germany was seeking pretexts for launching?

Whatever the answers to these questions may be, the probable fact is that what these Powers would avert was not what Germany would wish to see averted. Hence the war, whereby the Teutonic Allies aspired to see realized their respective age-long dreams and ambitions, so suddenly shattered by the unexpected Turkish defeat in the Balkan conflict. Austria-Hungary sought, by victory in the war, to gain the predominant political position over the Balkan States, as well as to reach Salonica, from which she aspired to command and to control the maritime routes of the Levant and the Near East; Germany sought to cut a route to Constantinople and thence to the Asiatic empire beyond, whence, thus sitting astride two continents, her rule would extend over a great part of the fertile plains and valleys of Asia and the cotton fields of Egypt. These were great visions which could not be realized so long as Turkey was in the way, and Turkey could only be brushed aside by a European war.

Here, then, is where the Turco-German Alliance becomes one of the strangest anomalies in history, for, whereas Germany is fighting for world-power and world-conquest, the Turks are fighting to help her make a conquest of themselves. And so the Turco-Teutonic Alliance becomes an alliance between Teutonic materialism and Turkish sentimental chauvinism, or, as a Turk has aptly described it, "an alliance between a calculating master and an uncalculating tool."

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Rupert Brooke and Other English Poets

The Collected Poems of Rupert Brooke. New York: John Lane Co. $1.25 net.

Poems. By G. K. Chesterton. New York: John Lane Co. $1.25 net.

The Lord of Misrule. By Alfred Noyes. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.60 net.

It was fitting that Mr. George E. Woodberry, whose fine erectness of spirit and high, classic poise recall vividly certain aspects of Rupert Brooke, should have written for the poems of that gifted and gallant soul a preface whose mingled warmth and insight seem almost to brand succeeding estimates with superfluity. To Brooke himself calamity has been in a sense fortune as well as glory, and English poetry will profit in the esteem of the world by the proof his career offers that the singers of Britain are fashioned of the same high stuff which composes her soldiers and martyrs.

What impresses me first in Rupert Brooke is the impact and onset, the blitheness as of foray, the eager and headlong seizure of effects which sometimes seem shivered into fragments by the very impetus of capture. I have also a double sense of objects combining the awe of distance with the precision of nearness, of a veiled clarity, more precisely, of things seen through some nameless medium which imparts the enrichment but not the obscuration of a veil.

He can be mystical, he can be sensuous—mysticism with reversions towards unbelief, sensuousness with declensions into nausea. Youth is obvious in these poems, though it often reveals itself in those preënactments—those rehearsals, as it were—of maturity, which are symptomatic of youth in our time. One phase—not the strongest—of his verse is concerned with that wreckage of ideals, that inexorable exposure of the brevity of life outliving the still greater brevity of love, which we once associated with the wrinkle and the stoop. Distinction has forsaken these exhibitions as a class, though the pursuit of distinction by their aid continues fashionable. But Rupert Brooke's touch is noteworthy, even when his instrument is conventional. His vapors are miasmas like the rest, but they are more richly and passionately tinged; they are stronger in poetry if not in substance. He is a worshipper of beauty, though certain passages recall the truth that the blasphemer is kinsman to the devotee. His cynicism sometimes attacks even the poetry which is its mouthpiece; he recurs wilfully to unlovely words, as if the verse spat upon its own garment.

These despairs represent the decease of faith and hope as little as the falling-out of the milk-teeth foretells the end of mastication. Brooke's convictions were stop-gaps: I feel in him a rare quality of imagination and emotion which still seeks its point of final attachment and in the meantime toys with makeshifts, as a young soldier like Brooke himself might balance a billiard cue or thrum a guitar in the idleness that awaited the signal of combat. The touch, at its best, has a poignant fineness, a vibrating delicacy, a union of substance and clairvoyance, which is tribulation for the analyst. I like him most when the sonnet bridles his prodigality, or when the melancholy which is quite as characteristic as the excitement allows free if passing play to his craving for classic regularity and calm. A single sonnet may exemplify two moods. In the octave the restless and thronging tropes, impatient in their confines, suggest the image of a cage of leopards; the sextet might have been written by Arnold or Landor.

Because God put His adamantine fate
  Between my sullen heart and its desire,
I swore that I would burst the Iron Gate,
  Rise up, and curse Him on His throne of fire.
Earth shuddered at my crown of blasphemy,
  But Love was as a flame about my feet;
Proud up the Golden Stair I strode, and beat
  Thrice on the Gate, and entered with a cry—

All the great courts were quiet in the sun,
  And full of vacant echoes: moss had grown
Over the glassy pavement, and begun
  To creep within the dusty council-halls.
An idle wind blew round an empty throne
  And stirred the heavy curtains on the walls.

What I have said of makeshift or provisional convictions has no application to the six poems headed "1914," the noblest poems of English origin in these heart-stirring years which have come to my eye. A powerful voice speaks out of a great hush; and the hush is half its power:

Blow out, you bugles, over the rich Dead!
  There's none of these so lonely and poor of old,
  But, dying, has made us rarer gifts than gold.
These laid the world away; poured out the red
Sweet wine of youth; gave up the years to be
  Of hope and joy, and that unhoped serene
  That men call age; and those who would have been,
Their sons, they gave, their immortality.

These six poems, at least, are worthy of endurance. Whether, on the usurious terms upon which immortality is granted in a forgetful world, they and the other work of this young Englishman will survive, is a question on which only the reckless will be quick to dogmatize. Rupert Brooke has done and written nobly; his worth to the future the future itself must assess.

Mr. Chesterton's "Poems" are launched to the stalwart "Yo-ho-ho" of verses like the following:

A cloud was on the mind of men, and wailing went the weather,
  Yea, a sick cloud upon the soul, when we were boys together.
Science announced nonentity and art admired decay;
The world was old and ended: but you and I were gay.
Round us in antic order their crippled vices came—
Lust that had lost its laughter, fear that had lost its shame.
Like the white lock of Whistler, that lit our aimless gloom,
Men showed their own white feather as proudly as a plume.
Life was a fly that faded, and death a drone that stung;
The world was very old indeed when you and I were young.
They twisted even decent sin to shapes not to be named:
Men were ashamed of honor; but we were not ashamed.

With the whip of this sea-salt still on our faces, let us cite two stanzas from "The Wise Men," in which the pathos of innocence is evoked with a loveliness which makes the infancy Blake drew seem puerile:

Step softly, under snow or rain
  To find the place where men can pray;
The way is all so very plain
  That we may lose the way. . . .

Go humbly . . . it has hailed and snowed . . .
  With voices low and lanterns lit;
So very simple is the road,
  That we stray from it.

The book, with its parti-colored outpour of hurrying battle-odes, hushed religion, soaring love, truculent politics, and riotous satire, illustrates once more those unforgettable contrasts, that childlikeness in sophistication, that tenderness in violence, that reverence in pasquinade, which make the author's relation to his own paradoxes seem rather brotherly than parental. As usual, his sureness becomes a flourish, almost a taunt. Possibly our faith in the stanchness of his convictions would not suffer, if his activity in clinching the nails and tightening the rivets were a trifle less conspicuous. He declares:

In a world of flying loves and fading lusts,
  It is something to be sure of a desire.

I like this very much, but this writing "Warranted" in large capitals on one's merchandise gives *relief* in a double sense to the anxieties it presupposes.

Mr. Chesterton, who is incurably doctrinaire, has the remedial advantage of being incurably picturesque. As drawing, however, is subsidiary to dogma, the picturesqueness becomes merely illustrative and fragmentary, and the result is a medley of objects, suns, stars, swords, crosses, meadows, lilies, and I know not what, detached from their native sites and borne alone, in almost casual grouping, on the high wind of his adventurous generalities. In other words, his picturesqueness, not being in this volume a narrative or descriptive picturesqueness, does not make his poems consecutive.

In that word "consecutive," or, let me rather say, cumulative, we touch Mr. Chesterton's defect. His moments are unsurpassable. If he could but content himself with moments! He squanders his poem in a phrase: then, left to choose between silence and repetition, he succumbs to the more tempting and hazardous alternative. He revolves, but does not evolve, and his ma-

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terial aggravates the fault. A clarion ranks high among heartening instruments, but its note is least susceptible of reiteration. Moreover, when Mr. Chesterton purports to speak out of the heart of man into the heart of things, I feel that a tongue so freighted should not be too agile. We pardon stammering rather than fluency to an oracle. The author is robbed, not of sincerity itself, but in part of the aspect and credit of sincerity.

A war epoch might have seemed propitious to the fame of Mr. Alfred Noyes. He is the fifer among English poets, and in wartime the fifer heads the troop. If "The Lord of Misrule" hardly verifies this forecast, it contains pointed matter, and its very dulness, which is not infrequent, is interesting as a literary problem. Those moods of Mr. Noyes, in which he makes poetry seem like a branch of physics or even mechanics, are adequately illustrated in the present volume. The effect is clearest in his glacial odes, and in the official or dress-parade poems exemplified in "A Salute from the Fleet." His ballads of Elizabethan motive, "The Lord of Misrule" and "Blind Moone of London," are not very sensitive or supple, but possess the cheeriness proper to the clink of spurs and the peal of bridles.

Even when Mr. Noyes's verse is petrified, it is curious that its implication of personal sincerity is unimpaired: he can be both automatic and sincere, a fire sufficient to warm the heart has not thawed the refractory imagination. That faculty, however, is not always obdurate; its response to the call of pathos is evident in the truth and tenderness of the following:

Island—little island—
  Lost so many a year,
Mother of all I leave behind
  —Draw me near!—
Mother of half the rolling world,
  And O, so little and gray,
The first time I found you
  Was when I turned away.

Over yon green water
  Sussex lies.
But the slow mists gather
  In our eyes.
England, little island
  —God, how dear!—
Fold me in your mighty arms,
  Draw me near.

Little tawny roofs of home,
  Nestling in the gray
Where the smell of Sussex loam
  Blows across the bay . . .
Fold me, teach me, draw me close,
  Lest in death I say
The first time I loved you
  Was when I turned away.

The mixed impression made by Mr. Noyes's book as a whole is that of a real human voice heard faintly and intermittently in the whir of spindles or the boom of a cataract, Mr. Noyes himself being equally responsible for the speech and the uproar. One of the clear notes is heard in his outspoken, simple-hearted religious faith. The old beliefs in Providence and immortality, which heartened an earlier England for struggles now triumphantly outlived, resume their pertinence, if not their validity, in the actualities of present trial, and Mr. Noyes, who is good at watchwords and refrains, becomes a not unimpressive figure when he bids the trumpeter "sound the great recall," the recall to the valors and endurances of faith. In these moments, the stolidity of Mr. Noyes seems only a homelier synonym for stanchness. Boyish he possibly may be, but not juvenile; his boyishness is merely a simplification of manhood.

O. W. Firkins.

Literature

STRATHCONA—SMITH.

The Life of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal. By Beckles Willson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Two volumes. $6.50 net.

The date 1838 marks one of the blackest years in the annals of Canada. The rebellion of the previous year had been stamped out, but the jails were full of rebels, the Constitution of the French province had been suspended, and martial law had been proclaimed. Competent observers held that Britain had failed as a colonizing power, and that the Canadas would follow the lead of the thirteen colonies and form an independent republic. To find a remedy for the discontents and to bring order out of chaos, Britain sent out a High Commissioner, with the powers of a Roman dictator, "Radical Jack" Lambton, soon to be raised to the peerage as Lord Durham for his able handling of the well-nigh impossible situation. As he passed through the village of Lachine, the headquarters of the Hudson's Bay Company, the pro-consular splendor which he affected so dazzled a young clerk of the Company that he forgot to cap to the great man. It was a serious omission, for even then he loved the aristocracy. The clerk was Donald Alexander Smith, from Forres, Scotland, just eighteen years of age and newly landed in the country. He lived to be himself a peer of the realm, to see the scattered colonies of British North America grow into the Dominion of Canada, and to become the most conspicuous representative of the new nation.

Such a career calls for a chronicler; and at least two attempts have been made to write it at length. An "official biographer" has been found in Mr. Beckles Willson, already well known for his life of Wolfe and his history of the Hudson's Bay Company. His "Life of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal" is not an entirely satisfactory production. It bears marks of haste; in places it is needlessly prolix, noticeably in the account of the Riel rebellion; and, on account of the multiplicity of documents printed *in extenso*, it is not always clear. Still, Mr. Willson has had access to a wealth of material denied to other biographers, and he has placed a large portion of it at the disposal of the public. One misses a complete impression of the man and his activities; but the careful reader can form it for himself.

For such a career, the ideal biographer would be the late Samuel Smiles; for Donald Smith is a shining example of self-help. He began as the typical poor Scotsman, educated, thrifty, shrewd, business-like, hard-working, energetic, clannish. Above all, he aimed at being "respectable" in the Scottish sense of the term, a fetish which Carlyle blasphemed. To be respected, one must have money and position. The road was long and hard, but Donald Smith traversed its entire length and reached his goal.

For nearly thirty years, from 1838 until 1867, he lived the life of a typical fur-trader in the wilds of Labrador. The wastefulness and improvidence of the Indians shocked the saving young clerk, who managed to live within his income when it was twenty pounds a year. Devoting himself to the interests of the Company, he rose from grade to grade until he became chief factor. The scenes of his activity were first Mingan, and later Hamilton Inlet. In the wilderness there was little chance to spend money. Donald Smith saved his pay and added to his savings his share of the Company's annual profits, to which he was entitled as "wintering partner." As early as 1858 he was a shareholder in the Bank of Montreal. But he did more than make and save money. He kept in touch with the outside world; he read; he informed himself on practical subjects bearing on his business. That he dressed in his "blacks" at the Back of Beyond, had prayers in the "factory" on Sunday for his employees, and made a farm and garden in the northern wild are all marks of the Scot who desires to be "respected like the lave." He was respected. The Company promoted a useful servant; his fellow-employees made him their banker; exploring naval officers, like McClintock and Markham, noted him as a man too big for Labrador to hold. His marriage to a fur-trader's daughter was a romance, growing out of a situation which the most daring novelist would hesitate to employ in realistic fiction.

Donald Smith emerged from the wilderness, a man of fifty with a small fortune, at a critical juncture in Canadian history. The young Dominion had just bought out the vague rights of the Hudson's Bay Company over the vast hinterland, which stretched from the Great Lakes to the Rocky Mountains. There was a hitch in the transfer. The French half-breeds on the ground took alarm at the premature activities of land-surveyors and the descent of land-grabbers on the scene, and organized a provisional government with Louis Riel at the head. The officers of the Hudson's Bay Company were not well pleased at the transfer, because they had been jockeyed out of their rights by the dividend-hunters of the London board. The whole story is not yet clear; nor does Mr. Willson contribute much light upon it.

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The provisional Government resisted the attempt to organize the territory into a new province. Armed men turned back an over-zealous Lieutenant-Governor. This was bad enough; but when Riel "executed" a Canadian prisoner named Scott, within the walls of Fort Garry, for no more serious offence than giving trouble to his guards, the country rose in hot indignation.

> And they murdered him there for his loyalty
> As they'd slaughter a mangy hound,

are lines from a contemporary bit of verse expressive of contemporary feeling. An expedition was organized under Col. (afterwards Field-Marshal) Wolseley, which surmounted immense difficulties in transporting itself to the Red River, only to find that Riel and his provisional Government had vanished. The new province of Manitoba was then peacefully organized. Donald Smith had been sent out as Commissioner, but had been practically a prisoner. His mission was a failure. He could not save the life of Scott, and he was lucky to escape with his own.

What made plain Mr. D. A. Smith Sir Donald Smith, and ultimately Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, with millions to support the dignity, was the Canadian Pacific Railway. A necessary consequence of the acquisition of this vast new territory by the new Dominion was the building of a railway through it. Two rival policies were set before the country: one to proceed cautiously and build slowly, as settlers came in; the other was to push the line boldly across the empty continent and let the population follow. The daring of the latter project raised a storm of opposition. Such a line would never pay for the axle-grease, was a favorite criticism. None the less, the syndicate of which Donald Smith and his cousin, George Stephen, also a director of the Bank of Montreal, were members, did succeed in building the road by means of governmental aid, consisting of huge subsidies of money and lavish grants of land. Thus the first great transcontinental line of Canada was built; its influence on the development of Canada was incalculable. The opening up of the vast wheat-growing areas, the influx of settlers, turned a poor country into a rich country and also enriched the daring and far-sighted promoters of the great design.

It is his share in building the Canadian Pacific Railway which gives Strathcona his title to be considered a "maker of Canada," an "empire-builder," a "statesman." In such great measures as confederation or the national policy he had neither part nor lot. Indeed, he opposed the latter measure in Parliament. He was simply a shrewd business man, whose most gigantic speculation turned out to be in the interest of the country. Once he became rich, the path to honors, titles, social success, was easy. He ended his days as High Commissioner, that is, the official representative of Canada at London, a venerable and kindly figure much given to splendid hospitality from his own purse, for he never touched his official salary.

He was not a Canadian, but a poor Scotsman who became a wealthy Scotsman through a business career in Canada. As characteristic as his ability to make money was the vein of romance deep down in his nature. His largesse to Montreal, to Aberdeen, to Yale, was not perhaps beyond the conception of the ordinary millionaire; but the ceremony of driving himself the last spike in the Canadian Pacific Railway (of gold), the raising of the Strathcona regiment of horse for the Boer War, as a mediæval baron might have called out his retainers, the Aladdin-like feast with which he celebrated his election as Lord Rector of Aberdeen, show the spark of imagination and mark him off from the herd of the merely rich.

CURRENT FICTION.

Within the Tides. By Joseph Conrad. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mr. Conrad inscribes to certain English friends "this sheaf of care-free ante-bellum pages in gratitude for their charming hospitality in the last month of peace." We wonder whether this is an apology or an omen. These four tales are, one would say, perfectly distinctive of their author. If he is to turn away from this kind of thing, what are we to have in its place? The first and longest of them, "The Planter of Malata," it is true, represents the author at his least satisfying. There is something strained and laborious about it. We often feel that Mr. Conrad has conquered the inadequacy of his theme, as it were, by a separate *tour de force*: he has done the thing before, and he will doubtless do it again, but we wonder how long he can keep it up. In "Victory" he came very near failure. In "The Planter of Malata" he topples over the edge. The Planter Renouard, like the mild hero of "Victory," is a wanderer who has settled upon a remote semi-tropical island. His project of growing a valuable vegetable silk there is on the way to accomplishment. On a visit to the nearest provincial centre he meets an English girl who has come out to look for her lost lover. That lover has been the Planter's assistant on Malata, and has died there recently. The Planter falls in love with the girl. She learns part of the truth, but it is only when the Planter has taken her to Malata to meet her old lover that she discovers the fact of his death. And at the moment of discovery the Planter reveals his own love. Though she has not really loved the other, she scorns him and sails away. For the rest, "nothing was ever found—and Renouard's disappearance remained in the main inexplicable. For to whom could it have occurred that a man would set out calmly to swim beyond the confines of life—with a steady stroke—his eyes fixed on a star!" Certainly, this is a theme to lend itself readily to the minor mystifications and subtleties which the writer appears sometimes to cultivate deliberately on their own account.

The three shorter tales that follow, on the other hand, show Mr. Conrad at his best as a story-teller, pure and simple. "The Partner" is a sea tale of wrecking, violence, and treasure—though the treasure is a patent medicine, sixty pounds in gold in a canvas bag are the romantic key to it. "The Inn of the Two Witches" is a story of horror almost as haunting as "The Pit and the Pendulum," and faintly resembling it in motive, or at least in its machinery of terror. "Because of the Dollars" is the tale of a wandering sea-trader and his chivalry—and what it cost him. In all these tales one feels that thrill of a familiar strangeness and atmospheric charm with which this writer's fancy invests the sea and its exotic peoples and shores. The glamour of the past and the remote has much to do with this effect. If Mr. Conrad's inscription means that he is going to write of the struggling Europe of to-day, we can only deplore it. "And indeed," as he says in this book of the memories of age, "the hopes of the future are a fine company to live with, exquisite forms, fascinating if you like, but—so to speak—naked, stripped for a run. The robes of glamour are luckily the property of the immovable past which, without them, would sit, a shivery sort of thing, under the gathering shadows."

Allward: A Story of Gypsy Life. By E. S. Stevens. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

A writer who is familiar with Gorgio literature about the gypsies, and yet succeeds in giving freshness to a story of gypsy life, accomplishes something of a feat. Miss Stevens takes a motto from Vambéry, and alludes often to Borrow, but it is clear that her interest in Romany life is based upon natural sympathy and not mere literary curiosity. In fact, she makes vigorous protest, through her hero, against that attitude. Says Richard Lyddon to the London maiden who just loves gypsies and "always talks to them for the sake of Borrow": "My dear little girl, you don't love anything about them at all, and it is humbug to pretend you do. That's my quarrel with people like yourself. It's all derived from books. It's second-hand. You look at other human beings and say, 'How picturesque! how romantic! how dirty!' without the least idea that they are as real and as complex as yourself. Far more real, far more real! It is the Baedeker attitude towards life that I hate."

Richard Lyddon is a man in his early thirties who has made fame and fortune by an invention connected with wireless telegraphy. His real enthusiasm, however, is not so much for science as for the personal freedom of the open. He is married by a worldly and conventional woman, an impossible mate. At the moment of their formal separation, chance casts him senseless into the care of a gypsy girl of sixteen. He is taken for a criminal named Adam Allward, for

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whom a reward is offered, and does not undeceive his hosts. The gypsy life enchants him—and so does the girl. Here enters a motive which one must suppose to be commoner in literature than in life—the romantic relation between a Gorgio man and a Romany girl. This gives much of its piquancy to "Lavengro," or, rather, the possibility of it, for if Borrow's own stability is ever threatened it is by Isopel Berners. This supplies the theme of Watts-Dunton in "The Coming of Love." It was Watts-Dunton who said that "between Englishmen of a certain type and gypsy women there is an extraordinary physical attraction." Such an attraction springs between the Richard Lyddon and Mary James of this story. In the end he is determined to marry her, and they observe the gypsy rite of jumping over the broomstick. But the girl distrusts their chances of permanent happiness, and will not consent to a legal marriage which may prove a bondage to the man she loves. The story is told simply and palatably for those who are able to relish this kind of thing. It is a kind of thing which for most of us has, after all, the musky, exotic flavor of a dish under suspicion, like chop-suey or goulash or the stew out of a gypsy pot.

Looking for Grace. By Mrs. Horace Tremlett. New York: John Lane Co.

It is not in the pursuit of Grace, entertaining as it is, that the real interest in this book lies, but in its picture of England during the present war. Mrs. Tremlett writes with such simplicity, if indeed it is not adroitness, that her London of to-day appears to be unconscious and therefore undoubted evidence of the devotion and sacrifice of a whole people. As naturally as if she were discussing an ordinary London season, she describes the little flat of which Sybil Burmester is mistress, where all who come are busy in the one absorbing task of helping those who are in need. Young wives, whose husbands are at the front; young widows, who have given their best beloved to their country; mothers, who have lost husband and sons; sweethearts, separated from their lovers; old men, who by reason of age are left behind; invalided soldiers on crutches, refugees from France or Belgium, they all pass through the little drawing-room, directed to their work or their posts by the sweetest, most engaging, the gentlest of coquettes. And this adroit or innocent writer lets no opportunity slip for the revealing touch. "What does Tom say?" Sybil asks of a young wife whose husband is at the front. "He is dreadfully annoyed, poor pet. But I will read you his letter: 'You little know what a hell this is, and I hope you will never know. The scenes I come across every day are enough to drive one mad, and I can't help feeling that the least you can do is to send along my brilliantine, especially as you know so well what my hair is without it. I do think it rather hard that when I ask for a simple little thing like brilliantine, I can't get it.'" Mrs. Tremlett evidently knows her English history and in what sort of brave apparel the dandies fought from Crécy to Worcester.

We put down this novel understanding as never before the spirit that animates all England, an England practical, calm, utterly devoted, and with a *gaieté de cœur* that the brave daughter of France herself does not show the world during these dark days.

THE THEORY OF TARIFFS.

Some Aspects of the Tariff Question. By Frank William Taussig. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. $2 net.

The title of Professor Taussig's book is "Some Aspects of the Tariff Question," but it would be difficult to name any aspect of the nature or effects of protective tariffs that is not touched upon in the work. The title, accordingly, is in some sense misleading; yet it is a good title in that it gives the author a certain freedom of choice of subject-matter. Emancipation from the need of a systematic or uniform discussion of the whole subject is not, however, as one might suppose, utilized for the singling out of certain special elements either in the theory or in the history of protective tariffs, and the ignoring of others. The plan of the book is to lay down, in an introductory section of less than fifty pages, the leading principles of the subject, and in the remaining sections to discuss, in the light of these principles, the history of American experience in three of the most important departments of staple production which have been deeply affected by tariff legislation—sugar, iron and steel, and textiles.

No one familiar with Professor Taussig's writings will need to be told that even in the brief introductory section dealing with general principles matters are not disposed of by the enunciation of a few simple generalities. In almost the first sentence, the reader is warned against the acceptance of the notion that every duty "operates automatically as a price-raising cause, bringing at once and permanently a tax up to its full rate"; and the warning is followed by a recital of the three classes of cases, of which this is only one, the other two being those in which the price is not raised at all and those in which, though raised, it is not raised by the full amount of the duty. Briefly, and yet accurately and with all necessary qualification, the elements that differentiate these classes from each other—and the elements, too, that differentiate cases within the same class—are set forth; and the careful reader, though previously unacquainted with economic theory, is placed in command of the essentials of this phase of the subject.

What is true of this first chapter of the introductory section is true of the other two chapters—on Protection to Young Industries and on The Principle of Comparative Advantage. The last thing that a reader need be afraid of is that he may be enticed into too sweeping an acceptance of the principle of free trade, or indeed of any economic principle whatever. Professor Taussig's unflagging conscientiousness is constantly in evidence. Whatever may be his prepossessions, he is careful not to permit them to dictate any statement that goes beyond what appears to him to be the strict truth. Thus, in regard to the introduction into a country, through tariff protection, of new industries destined to be self-supporting, and therefore capable of dispensing with favoring duties, he finds himself constrained to admit that this may in some instances be profitably done even in the present highly advanced condition of the United States; although, as he expressly states, he had in previous works asserted the opposite view.

The care with which every theoretical proposition is enunciated, and hedged about with all necessary qualifications, finds its counterpart in the scrupulous accuracy which Professor Taussig applies to the portrayal of industrial facts in the survey of the story of sugar, of iron and steel, and of textiles, which forms the bulk of his book. We say portrayal, rather than statement, of facts, because the plan throughout is to follow the thread of economic ideas, and set forth the facts in relation to them, rather than to set down a mere aggregation of details, either statistical or descriptive, though these are present in ample quantity. But while it is always with an eye to their economic interpretation that the facts are put forward, there is never for a moment the feeling that a selection is made with a view to the supporting of any preconceived conclusion. Accordingly, the protectionist, the free-trader, and the reader without *parti pris* can alike go to Professor Taussig's book with entire confidence that they will find in it a treasury of interesting and important facts, accompanied by illuminating comment, and that they need not be on their guard against the results of bias, in point either of selection or of coloring. Moreover, they will find, apart from the bearing of the matter upon the tariff question in its more immediate aspects, much instructive discussion of the broader issues connected with the economic development of the nation. Thus, in the chapter on the beet-sugar industry, a number of pages are devoted to a discussion of the effect of protection in such a field as this upon the character of our agricultural population; the conditions created being characterized as "socially and industrially unwelcome," and as having given rise to an "agricultural proletariat." In the survey of the iron and steel industry, the part played by trade-unionism and by the opposition to it is subjected to a lucid analysis. And throughout the three surveys there is kept in mind the object of giving a well-rounded view of the whole story.

In emphasizing Professor Taussig's remarkable fair-mindedness, we would not be understood as intending unqualified praise. In the presentation of facts, it is impossible to be too fair-minded; but in the expounding of principles the habit may easily be carried beyond the point of maximum utility. Professor Taussig's constant desire to be immaculately fair results in a certain lack of

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sharpness of general effect not altogether inherent, we believe, in the nature of the subject-matter; and in one or two instances it has the consequence, we take it, of making him practically unfair to the side to which he himself inclines. Thus, he is so thoroughly alive to the defects of the crudest form of free-trade dogma that he sometimes fails to distinguish between that and the free-trade views of competent economists or of intelligent free-traders generally. Thus, upon the question of how far the vast development of our steel and iron industry is to be ascribed to protection—a question which, of course, Professor Taussig himself discusses with absolute lucidity and fairness—he says that the protectionist "points with pride to the final outcome" and "the uncompromising advocate of free trade has but one reply to make: that the same result would have come about without protection," that the industry "would have grown as fast and as far without protection." Surely, there are extremely few intelligent advocates of free trade, however "uncompromising," who would feel themselves called upon to assert any such position.

ECONOMIC INTERPRETATION OF HISTORY.

Economic Origins of Jeffersonian Democracy. By Charles A. Beard. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3.

Professor Beard continues in this volume, through the Administrations of Washington and Adams, the line of inquiry begun in his "Economic Interpretation of the Constitution," and with equally striking results. The method of the two books is the same, namely, an examination of the personal interest of members of Congress and other Federal officers, through the holding of public securities or participation in financial transactions, in the policies of the Federalist and Anti-Federalist parties; joined to a study of the general economic influences which affected, in the twelve years under consideration, the discussion of public questions. No more important contributions to the study of American history have been made for many years than these two volumes contain; and whether the author's conclusions as a whole are accepted or not, his facts unquestionably compel a revision of more than one opinion hitherto regarded as settled.

Mention of a few only of the most important points upon which the author touches is all that can be attempted here. Taking up the story where the earlier work left it, Professor Beard goes on to inquire whether the Jeffersonian Democrats were connected, in their origin, with the large body of citizens who opposed the adoption of the Constitution. That the opposition in the ratifying conventions and in the country came predominantly from the agrarian and debtor classes, while support was drawn from capitalistic centres, was early recognized by a few historians. The view has widely obtained, however, that after the ratification of the Constitution by the States, the old grounds of opposition were abandoned, and that the party conflicts of Washington's and Adams's time were waged on new lines. A study of the personnel of the early Congresses, however, shows that not only were the opponents of the administrative programme the same persons, in many instances, who had appeared in opposition in the State conventions, but also that the main lines of opposition were essentially the same. Between the Anti-Federalists of 1787-88, in other words, and the Anti-Federalists or Republicans of 1791-93, there was not only no practical difference, but in fact a large measure of personal identity. Jeffersonian democracy appears, not as a political policy formed by the attrition of Hamilton's financial measures, but as a programme descending unbrokenly from the days of the Federal Convention. The same issues, the same spheres of conflict, the same concern over the payment of the debt and the establishment of a financial system which should protect capital, and the same personal and sectional ambitions and fears, formed the bases of party division both before and after 1789. Incidentally, Professor Beard goes far towards dissipating the notion that Washington was not a party man by showing that he not only consistently favored the Federalist programme, but that he also worked, through appointments and personal influence, to obtain support for it.

With the historical continuity of party principles established, Professor Beard goes on to examine, from the same point of view of prevailing economic interest, the great struggle over Hamilton's financial proposals, the connection between security-holding and politics, the Anti-Federalist resistance to taxation, and the politics of agrarianism. Two chapters of notable importance deal with the economic conflict as reflected in Republican literature, especially in the writings of John Taylor, and with the economics of the Jay treaty. A chapter on the political economy of John Adams, written, the author states, before the publication of C. M. Walsh's "Political Science of John Adams," supplements, and in part anticipates, the conclusions of that work. The volume closes with an account of the election of 1800-1801, and a summary of Jefferson's economic and political opinions. Embedded in the latter is a passage (pp. 454-455), originally intended to form part of Jefferson's first message to Congress, but for some reason stricken out at the last moment, and here reproduced from the Jefferson papers in the Library of Congress, which Professor Beard properly characterizes as "astounding." Referring to "reclamations against the sedition act" which had been laid before him, at the beginning of his Administration, by citizens "claiming the protection of the Constitution," Jefferson wrote:

> Called on by the position in which the nation had placed me to exercise in their behalf my free and independent judgment, I took that act into consideration, compared it with the Constitution, viewed it under every respect of which I thought it susceptible, and gave it all the attenion which the magnitude of the case demanded. On mature deliberation, in the presence of the nation and under the solemn oath which binds me to them, and to my duty, I do declare that I hold that act to be in palpable and unqualified contradiction to the Constitution. Considering it then as a nullity, I have relieved from oppression under it those of my fellow citizens who were within the reach of the functions confided to me. In recalling our footsteps within the limits of the Constitution, I have been actuated by a zealous devotion to that instrument.

Professor Beard, commenting upon this passage, points out that, whatever the reason which led Jefferson to omit it from his message, "it is clear that he was prepared to set himself up as a sort of high tribunal and declare null and void, as unconstitutional, an act of Congress, duly passed and approved. . . . It would have been interesting to have read the comments of those newspapers which had been exalting the legislative branch of the Government if Jefferson had let that passage stand in his message."

That Professor Beard's conclusions, of which he gives a convenient summary at the close of the volume, will not go unchallenged is certain. Only those critics, however, who reject, more or less completely, the theory of an economic interpretation of history will be likely to quarrel with his main thesis. On the other hand, an economic explanation of Jeffersonian democracy, however fundamental, seems hardly to comprise the whole story. One or two illustrations must suffice. Granting that Anti-Federalism was grounded in the ignorance, prejudice, and financial interest of the agrarian class, why did the Anti-Federalists make State rights and strict construction so fundamental a part of their political creed? Was the experience of State government so satisfying as to encourage the hope of definitive relief from that source? Memories must, indeed, have been short if farmers, small tradesmen, and artisans had forgotten, by 1792-93, the disordered conditions of 1786-87; and even if they had not forgotten, how came they to imagine that a new Federal Government, obviously better in important respects than the Government which had preceded it, must nevertheless work more to their disadvantage than the State governments, whose weaknesses they knew only too well? Professor Beard's answer would be, we suppose, that economic conditions in 1786-87 were in reality better than has commonly been represented, that such economic distress as there was was widely attributed to the activities of capitalists and speculators, and that fear of the "money power" overshadowed the realization of debt. The answer certainly has weight, but it hardly seems to point to State rights and strict construction as the obvious refuge.

Again, why did the Anti-Federalists espouse with such exuberance the cause of France? Hostility to England was, of

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course, easily explicable on historical grounds; but if an aggressive capitalism was the evil most to be dreaded, was France likely to prove an efficient defender of agrarian interests? Moreover, is no influence to be ascribed to Federalist legislation, much of which, it would seem, could only by tortuous reasoning take on an economic bearing? In short, was there not in Jeffersonian democracy a clear substratum of political thinking, partly protest and partly ambition, not wholly economic in its origin, which must nevertheless be taken into the account in determining the grounds of the Republican opposition? Professor Beard certainly does not deny the existence of a political element as well as an economic one; nor, for that matter, of a speculative political philosophy opposed at every point to monarchy, class privilege, and centralized governmental control. We judge, however, that he thinks the economic element overwhelmingly predominant. The Alien and Sedition acts, for example, are briefly dismissed with the remark that "certainly their immediate effect was not to diminish seriously the power of the Federalist party, as the elections of 1799 [1798] . . . conclusively demonstrated" (p. 357). It is true that the Sixth Congress (1799-1801) had an increased Federalist majority; but the elections of 1798 took place when war with France seemed imminent and when public feeling was stirred by the excitement of the X. Y. Z. affair, both of which conditions may well have overshadowed, for the time being, economic considerations.

These observations, however, have to do with emphasis rather than with substance, and do not impair the high scholarly character of Professor Beard's work. The volume deserves the thoughtful attention of every student of American history.

THE STYLE OF APULEIUS.

Apulei Apologia. With Introduction and Commentary. By H. E. Butler and A. S. Owen. Oxford University Press. 7s. 6d. net.

Apuleius is best known to-day by his "Metamorphoses," owing both to the intrinsic interest of that work and to its varied literary appeal; it has been admired in turn by Elizabethan Euphuists, Romantic mystics, and decadent Symbolists. For an intimate understanding of Apuleius and his times, his "Apologia" is almost as important a document: for himself it was more than a literary exercise. Brought to trial on the charge of poisoning his elderly wife's relatives and of securing her affection with the aid of the black art, he faced the possibility of a death-sentence. His defence should therefore be taken seriously despite the monumental vanity of the performance; he pleads guilty to the charge of poetry, philosophy, magic, and personal beauty, but insists that eminent distinction in these affairs is not incompatible with a benevolent purpose. Incidentally, he draws a picture of domestic and literary life in the second century with a vividness and minuteness that take us back to the "Pro Cluentio" of Cicero.

The present edition of the "Apologia," the work of two eminent Oxford Latinists, is a notable affair. Mr. Butler is responsible for the text, for the well-documented life of Apuleius in the introduction, and for most of the notes. Mr. Owen writes the introductory chapter on the style and language of Apuleius, the notes on these matters and most of the notes on magic. There are various indices and a convenient bibliography. The text, while agreeing generally with that of Helm, to whose services Mr. Butler pays cordial tribute, is a thoroughly independent affair, based on a fresh examination of all, or nearly all, the extant manuscripts; these descend from one parent codex, a famous Florentine book formerly in Monte Cassino.

The style of Apuleius is discussed by Mr. Owen with the air of one who has some feeling for style in general—a rare quality in treatises of the sort, in which "Stylistik" too frequently means the amassing of statistics on particles. Mr. Owen gives careful lists and categories, but his business is that of the architect, and not the hod-carrier of criticism. Building thus, he finds a difference between the Apuleius of the "Apologia" and what Pater calls "the Rococo and perfumed personality of the 'Florida' and the 'Metamorphoses'"; like Tacitus, Apuleius began with accepted models and worked out a distinctive manner only after experimentation. Pater speaks of the completed style as "full of the archaisms and curious felicities in which that generation delighted, quaint terms and images picked from the early dramatists, the life-like phrases of some lost poet preserved by an old grammarian, racy morsels of the vernacular, and studied prettinesses."

We think Mr. Owen would have done well in accepting Pater in another point and not being so positive that there was no poetry in the second century. It is true that "poetry had played so large a part in the education of the Roman boy that it had won a Pyrrhic victory and had itself been absorbed in the territory it had conquered." But fragments of poetry from that age certainly exist, and Pater set there, too, with what seems a sure instinct, that gorgeous and heavily scented poem, the "Pervigilium Veneris." A matter laid once for all, we hope, is the much-bruited problem of "African" style, which Mr. Owen convincingly concludes is a myth. The loud coloring of the later rhetoric, quite as conspicuous in the writings of the Gallic Bishop Sidonius as in Apuleius, was not due to Punic extravagance, nor prolixity to "the contemplation of the desert." The true cause, as the reviewer has long felt and is glad to see amply recognized here, is nothing but that high-flown Asiatic oratory which had long prevailed in many centres and which now and then infected Cicero himself. Mr. Owen promises further study of this matter. Meanwhile his little essay will please not only readers of Apuleius, but students of Latin style in general, by its erudition and its seasoning of wit. He well remarks that Apuleius was more catholic in his literary sympathies than Fronto, and warns against inferring that coincidences with a Plautine or Terentian swear-word are proof that Apuleius did not use the language of the street, but learnedly fished the objectionable term from Plautus or Terence. The orator's opponents, as Mr. Owen puts it,

> might well be unmoved at abuse which would be as out of date as to call a man at the present day "a zed," "an unnecessary letter," or "a vile, standing tuck." The phrases are such as might have well been kept alive without being consciously borrowed from pre-Ciceronian authority. If we hear a man say "odds frogs and tambours" we are certain that he borrowed from "The Rivals," but we do not feel that a use of the objurgations loved by Squire Western is evidence that he who uses them has read "Tom Jones."

SOURCES OF ANGLO-INDIAN HISTORY.

The Making of British India. By Ramsay Muir. (Manchester University Historical Series, No. XXVIII.) New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2 net.

When we consider the mass of original documents available for historians and students of the British period in India, the need of a volume of this convenient compass becomes apparent. While catalogues of official documents are more or less accessible, or are rapidly becoming so, together with the results of the valuable researches of enthusiasts like Sir George Forrest and Mr. S. C. Hill, yet a small, synthetic collection of this material has always been desired. In this volume Professor Muir has included the most important dispatches, treaties, statutes, and other documents from 1756 to the passing of the "Hon. John Company" in 1858, and the edition may serve as a useful introduction to the more extensive series on this early British period in India published by the Clarendon Press. Professor Muir's extracts are accompanied by inductive notes and succinct reviews of the crucial phases that marked the adventitious change in the destiny of the Company from that of a handful of merchant adventurers into the conquerors of a great empire.

A vast literature of this nature naturally falls into three parts: (1) The letters of travellers during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; (2) official documents; (3) biographies, diarial notes, and letters of a private nature. Such abundant and often irrelevant material passes through the laboratory of our modern history. Not the least important scraps have been gleaned from the "travellers' tales" of the eighteenth century: as a guide to the latter Oaten's "European Travellers in India" is invaluable. As yet, however, a vast mine of official documents, hidden in Parliamentary publications and the reports of commissions, remains to be explored. One theme alone invites curiosity. Who were the members and families comprising the shareholders and the "Honourable Board of Directors," and what part

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did they take in the drafting of those aggravating minutes that hindered the policy of a Clive or a Hastings? We already know to what extent local and personal prejudices influenced the early machinery of empire: the egregious ignorance revealed during the trial of Hastings is classic. A fascinating vista presents itself of shareholders, ranging from dowagers in black mittens to Robert Boyle, the philosopher who, as a director, in 1677 was active in the first steps taken towards missionary education among the *Moors*, as Mussulmans were known until Warren Hastings's governorship.

Thus, the harassing conditions under which some of this remarkable *précis* writing was done provide a good insight to the character and vision of the various administrators. Cabals made petty jealousy rife in the days when the directors withheld authority, and the moral tone of the service was low. When Dr. Fryer visited Surat in 1696 (the first of Professor Muir's excerpts) he remarked conditions that led to the state of anarchy faced by Clive in 1765. There was no incentive to honesty when salaries as low as £10 or £20 per annum were paid, with the chance and encouragement for private trade: Writers, factors, and merchants through *Banyans* (whose odium persists in the wily *bunya* of to-day) found "the fittest tools for any deceitful undertaking" that effectively shook for them the pagoda tree. The first trouble in Bengal is due to the extortions of the Company's servants, and the *Nabobs* of Thackeray's romance and the English counties were all due to this period, before the strong, clean hand of Hastings was freed by the directors and a new personal integrity encouraged. Professor Muir's extracts show clearly the gradual translation of the Company, through surrendering its strictly mercantile affiliations, into a political and military body. From the collapse of the Mogul empire chaos resulted, and into this confusion, described by Orme, we find the Company precipitated with a desire for stability of law and order. That the Company should find itself a king-maker was inevitable. Thus it is possible to trace the early growth of the adopted formula *divide et impera* that unconsciously has entered into the British policy, and still persists in a more abstract form.

No better opportunity exists than to-day for a new and accurate estimate of the genius of Warren Hastings and Clive derived from these and more extensive sources, since the inaccuracies of Macaulay, though he is still a textbook in Indian schools, are already patent to the average native scholar. For a study of the growth and reform of Indian law; of the land system and its temporary setback under the unimaginative Cornwallis; of Elphinstone's handling of the village system; of the beginnings of education and the influence of Macaulay's ponderous and didactic minute, which is largely responsible for the anomalous position of educated Indians in relation to the government of to-day; of the various acts that culminated in the Proclamation of 1858, taking India under the Crown: all these, and the stirring incidents and reforms of protagonists like Dalhousie, are adequately illustrated in Professor Muir's collection. Lack of space has made the author omit the more picturesque episodes, like the struggle between the French and English in the Carnatic, and the more or less familiar narrative of the Mutiny.

Academic Societies

THE SOCIETY OF BIBLICAL LITERATURE.

The annual sessions of the Society of Biblical Literature were held at Columbia University on Monday and Tuesday, December 27 and 28, 1915.

The annual address was delivered by Prof. C. C. Torrey, of Yale University, the president of the Society for this year, Professor Torrey, speaking on the need of a new edition of the Hebrew Bible, pointed out the reason for the uncertainty of the Biblical text in so many places, and remarked incidentally on one of the contrasts between ancient and modern literature, that for the ancient period the text is often uncertain, but the thought superb, while in modern literature the text is generally certain, but the thought mediocre. Professor Torrey then proceeded to indicate the defects of recent critical editions of the Hebrew Bible, due generally to the circumstance that such a work was undertaken by a number of scholars with various degrees of equipment and following different principles.

In the unavoidable absence, at the Monday evening session, of Prof. James A. Montgomery, of the University of Pennsylvania, who was the director of the American School of Archæology at Jerusalem for the year 1914-1915, the report of the school was presented by Prof. Kemper Fullerton, of Oberlin College, who accompanied Professor Montgomery. Owing to the outbreak of the war in August, 1914, the activity of the school had to be suspended. Amid some difficulties Professor Montgomery managed, however, to remain in Jerusalem until Christmas Day, when, on the advice of the American Consul, all Americans were urged to leave. Professor Montgomery proceeded to Egypt, where he remained for several months carrying on special studies in Arabic. The director devoted his three months' stay in Jerusalem to a study of the topography of the city, and made a number of important discoveries. In the Valley of Hinnom, just outside the walls of the city, Professor Montgomery came across the remains of three stone rock altars which had been overlooked by previous investigators, and which were identified as altars of Molech, so frequently referred to in the Old Testament. An interesting feature of the report was the description of the proclamation of the "Holy War" (Jihad) about the middle of November, which, though it did not meet with much response on the part of the Moslems, created considerable consternation among the Christian and Jewish natives. There were, however, no disorders or any acts of violence.

As usual, the number of papers on the Old Testament far exceeded those dealing with New Testament problems. Among the latter, however, there was one of special present-day interest, a discussion of "Christ and War," by Dr. Henry J. Cadbury, of Haverford College. Referring to several recent attempts on the part of theologians and others to interpret utterances of Jesus in such a way as to justify the views of "militarists," Professor Cadbury showed that, as a matter of fact, Jesus left no definite and direct legislation on the question of international warfare. What Jesus taught were principles of personal character, and it is left to Christians to apply His principles to practical problems of private and national life. Dr. Cadbury had no hesitation, however, in adding that both the principles and conduct of Jesus ranged themselves definitely against the spirit and method of war, and that no twisting of His sayings can get around such a conclusion. "For the programme of war," Professor Cadbury concluded, "its defenders can scarcely appeal for support to Jesus. They may call Him an impractical idealist, or by some of the harsher names applied to modern pacifists; they may treat the Sermon on the Mount as a 'scrap of paper' or accept it on a sliding scale; they may hang up their Christianity on a peg until the war is over; but the defenders of a programme of war cannot claim Jesus as a support."

Another New Testament paper of more general interest was that of Dr. Clayton R. Bowen, of Meadville Theological School, discussing the title "Baptist" used of John and the meaning of "baptize." Dr. Bowen maintained that the title commonly associated with John does not refer to his baptismal activity, but is to be taken as a sect name among early Christians to designate those who believe in baptism. In fact, it is likely that Jesus and others, whom John is said to have baptized in the Jordan, really baptized themselves in his presence.

Somewhat in contrast to the attitude of "Jesus on War," as set forth in Professor Cadbury's paper, Prof. W. R. Arnold, of Cambridge, Mass., showed that the old national deity, Yahweh, of the Hebrews, was not afraid of being known as a militant deity. As a result of a detailed investigation of the designation *Yahweh Sebaoth*, usually rendered "Yahweh [or God] of Hosts," Professor Arnold showed the real meaning to be "Yahweh Militant," that is, "Yahweh on the Warpath." Such was the original form and meaning of the title, but subsequently—indeed at a comparatively very late period—the fuller form "Yahweh, God of Hosts," arose through the introduction of a term intended as a surrogate for the sacred name. From this later form the idea arose that the armies referred to were either those of Israel or the heavenly hosts.

Prof. C. F. Kent, of Yale University, in an interesting investigation of the "Origin of the Tradition of the Twelve Hebrew Tribes," showed that this tradition of twelve tribes grew up during the reign of David and Solomon. In narratives embodied in the "Book of Judges" as many as twenty different tribes are mentioned. The tradition arose, according to Professor Kent, for the purpose of allaying tribal feuds, and was promulgated by patriotic prophets and statesmen in order to cement the Hebrew commonwealth into a united state.

Prof. Paul Haupt, of Johns Hopkins University, presented a number of papers, all of striking interest and marked by his usual originality of thought. Professor Haupt pro-

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posed to render the famous description which the prophet Amos gives of himself in chapter 7 of his Prophecies, "A pricker I, a piercer of sycamores" instead of "An herdman and gatherer of sycamore fruit," the reference being to the puncturing of sycamore figs to induce early ripening as described by Pliny (Book 13, 56).

In a paper on the shape of the ship of the Babylonian survivor of the Deluge, which was calculated to have been 525 feet long, 210 feet wide and deep, Professor Haupt argued that the seven stories of which the ship consisted were suggested by the colossal temple towers of Babylonia, which in later times also consisted of seven stories. He believed that there was a connection between temples and ships, and that the sacred boats, in which on the occasion of the great festivals the gods of Babylonia and also of Egypt were carried about, were originally towers of wood turned upside down.

Prof. L. B. Paton, of Hartford Theological Seminary, investigated the statement in Eusebius in his "Preparation for the Gospel" that his account of Phœnician cosmogony is taken from the Greek translation, made by Philo of Byblos, of the Phœnician history Sanchuniathon. Professor Paton showed the strong presumption against the theory that Eusebius invented this fragment. The Semitic character of the extracts given by Eusebius also speak against the presumption that Philo should have invented the traditions, but, on the other hand, it is probable that Philo revised the material which he obtained from an original Phœnician source and introduced his own views setting forth the identification of Phœnician gods with Egyptian and Greek divinities as well as the view that the gods were originally deified men.

The two papers of Prof. M. L. Margolis, of the Dropsie College, Philadelphia, were of a very learned and technical character, giving the results of the study of the text of the Septuagint on which Dr. Margolis has been engaged for many years. A rather interesting conclusion reached recently by Professor Margolis is his discovery of marginal notes to the original Greek translation embodying various renderings of the Hebrew text, which afterwards, however, were incorporated into the translation itself and thus created a certain amount of confusion as well as an appearance of tautology.

Finally, two papers read before the Society dealt with Dr. Langdon's recent publication of an important tablet in the University of Pennsylvania Museum (see the review in the *Nation* of November 18, 1915, pages 597 sqq.). According to Dr. Langdon's interpretation of the text, it was a Sumerian prototype of Noah who ate the fruit through which mankind forfeited the boon of immortality. Professor Barton, of Bryn Mawr College, who entitled his paper "Did Noah Eat the Apple?" did not agree with Dr. Langdon in assuming that the tablet contained a reference to the fall of man. What Dr. Langdon took for an act of disobedience on the part of the first man, Dr. Barton explained as a story of the beginnings of agriculture and of the revelation to man of the medicinal qualities of certain plants. Dr. Barton also could not follow Dr. Langdon in seeing any reference to a Deluge in the text. What Dr. Langdon took for an account of the Flood Professor Barton interpreted as representing the beginnings of irrigation in Babylonia.

Professor Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, in a paper on "A Doubtful Sumerian Paradise," dealt with the remaining, third, thesis of Dr. Langdon, that the tablet begins with a description of a state of paradise. According to Professor Jastrow, the purpose of the tablet is to describe a state of things in the beginning of time when land and even a city existed, but without animal or human life. In semi-mystical fashion, not uncommon in primitive myths, the irrigation of the fields needed to bring about fertility so essential for the maintenance of animal and human life, was depicted as the result of a sexual union between a god and a goddess. Professor Jastrow agreed with Professor Barton that the tablet contained no account of the Deluge or of the fall of man. According to the Sumerian and Babylonian idea, the gods when they created man kept life in their own hands and decreed death for mankind, but not as a punishment for any sin committed.

An interesting feature of the meeting was the tribute paid by the members to the faithful services rendered to the Society by the Rev. W. H. Cobb, of Boston, Mass., who has given twenty-five years of continuous work as secretary. The activity and the flourishing condition of the Society, it was felt, were largely due to Mr. Cobb, and deep regret was expressed that, owing to advancing years, he felt obliged to relinquish the position. The Society was anxious to show its appreciation by some testimonial, but Mr. Cobb, with characteristic modesty, declined any kind of a demonstration, including even the presidency, which was unanimously tendered him. His place as secretary was filled by the election of Prof. James A. Montgomery, while Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., was elected president of the Society for the ensuing year.

M. J., JR.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The report of the recent meeting of the American Association of University Professors, by Prof. William MacDonald, in your issue of January 13, ought not to pass without some correction and some comment. Concerning Mr. MacDonald's reflections upon the "organizing ability" of the retiring officers and upon the parliamentary rulings of the chairman, it would be unsuitable and unprofitable to speak. Your correspondent's strictures upon these points, whether well or ill taken, relate to the past proceedings of individuals no longer in office; no public interest, therefore, can be served by a discussion of such matters, as none was served by Mr. MacDonald's presentation of them. It may, however, be permissible to remark that the method of Mr. MacDonald's urbane and generous comment consists largely in declaring that those hitherto in charge of the Association's business "seem not to have perceived" certain patent facts—whereas, of course, those facts had been obvious to every one, and the views concerning them taken by Mr. MacDonald had been deliberately rejected, as manifestly ill-considered.

However, errors have undoubtedly occurred, and some things which might conceivably have been done with advantage during the past year have been left undone. The retiring officers must be content with the solid satisfaction there is in the fact that, in spite of their shortcomings, an organization, having the potency and promise of great usefulness to the American universities and the academic profession, has actually been formed out of the not altogether easily organizable human material composing that profession; that the society enters upon its second year with a membership of above fourteen hundred, representative to a high degree of what is best in American scholarship; that it has, even during its formative period, begun to exercise an appreciable influence in university affairs, has obtained from its committees half a dozen extensive and important reports, and has already done a good deal to interpret to the general public the nature and meaning of the scholar's calling; and that its brief annual meeting has, in Mr. MacDonald's words, at least, "one solid achievement" to its credit, which "may fairly be regarded as marking an epoch in the history of American higher education."

It is concerning the views expressed by Mr. MacDonald on certain questions of the Association's policy that I beg to offer a few observations.

(1.) Mr. MacDonald believes that the annual convention of the Association should be an "independent meeting," held "at some other time than the Christmas holidays." But the "other time" would necessarily be either the summer vacation, or a time when many universities are in session—since the Christmas holidays are the only other vacation period (of more than a day or two) observed by all institutions. Either alternative would probably yield a smaller and a geographically less representative attendance than that at Washington—where about one-sixth of the membership appears to have been present at one or more sessions. The problem of obtaining a sufficiently representative attendance at the annual meetings has from the first been recognized as one of the principal difficulties confronting the new organization. It may be necessary eventually to convert the meeting into a conference of delegates of local branches. That, however, should, for fairly evident reasons, not be done until the experience of several years demonstrates its inevitability. Meanwhile, the most advantageous arrangement will continue to be the holding of the meeting during convocation week, at a place where several specialistic societies are also gathered, but at a time when most of them are not in session. It should, in course of time, be possible to obtain a much larger attendance at these gatherings, if three conditions are fulfilled: (a) It should be arranged that all important scientific societies hold their meetings, in any one year, in the same section of the country, though not necessarily in the same city. Preliminary steps to this end were taken last year, but some time will probably be required for the realization of this plan. (b) It should be an understood thing that the earlier part of convocation week is to be devoted to the discussions of the several specialistic organizations, and that the last two days of the week are to be set apart for the deliberations of the general Association of Professors upon educational and professional questions of concern to men in all specialties. (c) Finally, it is needful that a larger proportion of the members of the profession become willing to make some small sacrifice of time and convenience in order to participate in such deliberations, and to insure the vitality and the public influence of their national professional organization.

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(2.) Mr. MacDonald appears to be much concerned over the mode of "organization" of this society. It is, indeed, a matter of both importance and difficulty to frame the mechanism of such a body so that it will be at once effective, representative of the opinions of its members, and economical of the time and energy of both officers and members. Mr. MacDonald's comments, however, do not seem to me to indicate that he has given any connected consideration to this problem, that he has any practicable constructive plan to offer, or that he has comprehended the plan worked out by last year's council. He laments, for example, that the council has held no meeting, except just before the Association's sessions, and that much of the council's business has been conducted by correspondence. But the Association can scarcely expect a committee of thirty-four men, scattered from Massachusetts to California and Texas, to come together upon Association business, unless travelling expenses are paid. And those expenses, for a single fully attended council meeting, would amount to approximately a thousand dollars. Such an expenditure last year would have been out of the question; nor even with the now increased income would it seem to be a proper use of the Association's funds. On the other hand, if travelling expenses are not provided, a council meeting in the midst of the academic year would probably be attended by only a fraction of the membership, chiefly by that fraction living near the place of meeting. If, however, the business of the council is to be transacted by only a part of it, it is manifestly proper that that part be determined, not by accident, but by selection by the council as a whole. There has, therefore, been elected an executive committee, which may be expected to meet upon occasion, which acts provisionally for the council upon urgent matters, and which prepares questions and proposals for submission to the council. The latter body either votes by letter upon these proposals and other matters or acts upon them when it convenes, shortly before the annual meeting of the Association. The final settlement of such committee business by correspondence is not an ideal method, for it affords insufficient opportunity for discussion; but it has one material advantage, of obvious importance in such an organization as this. It gives to every member, and not to those only who happen to attend a meeting, a vote; and it enables, for example, the representatives of the Californian universities to have an equal voice with those living nearer the centre of academic population. The logic of this plan appears to have eluded Mr. MacDonald. If he has in mind a workable form of organization which will better realize the three *desiderata* I have mentioned, I hope he will promptly lay it before the newly elected council.

Mr. MacDonald, again, has missed the point of the action taken on "the extremely important question of the formation of local and regional groups." This, he informs your readers, "elicited only a vague and unsatisfactory recommendation from the council, and was referred back for further consideration." The recommendation may appear to Mr. MacDonald unsatisfactory, but it was not "vague," though it was intentionally tentative and experimental; it was, in fact, objected to as being, in certain points, too explicit. And it was not "referred back for further consideration," but was adopted, after some amendment. One of the main tasks of the new council will, therefore, be to promote (though not to compel) the formation of local groups, which may discuss the questions before the Association, may communicate their views to the council or the annual meeting, and may present new matters for the consideration of the general body. By this means it should be possible to get a more adequate expression of the collective judgment of the profession than any annual meeting alone could give.

All this has apparently so completely escaped Mr. MacDonald that he has been able to make the astonishing statement that the recommendations of last year's council afforded "no evidence that the pressing problems of organization had really been approached." Perhaps, after all, your reporter's state of mind does indicate that there are disadvantages in holding a meeting at the end of a week "distractingly full of addresses, discussions, smokers, and receptions."

(3.) Professors, observes Mr. MacDonald, must "realize that rights are not to be safeguarded simply by asseverating them." This is doubtless a cross-reference to the same writer's article in your issue of November 25, 1915, in which he raises, and seemingly answers in the affirmative, the question, "Shall professors form a union?" To just what lengths of militancy Mr. MacDonald would have us go, is not altogether clear to me; but what seems quite clear is that he singularly under-estimates the potency in these matters of what he calls "mere publicity"—*i. e.*, of clear and steady enunciation of principles, and, when essential principles appear to have been violated, of searching and impartial ascertainment of the facts, and an unsparing disclosure of them. Mr. MacDonald, for example, points out that the Association's report on the Utah case does not "appear to have weighed with the trustees of the University of Pennsylvania"—who, in fact, took the action to which he refers before the report was published, except in a brief abstract which most of the trustees very likely had never seen. But at the time when Mr. MacDonald wrote a committee of the trustees was already preparing an important revision of the University's rules relating to tenure and dismissal. It would be improper for me at this time to express an opinion as to the sufficiency of these changes; but it is manifest that they are a notable step in the right direction. Whether the Association's existence and activities had any part in furthering this desirable result, I do not know; though it can scarcely be doubted that the unequivocal protests of members of the local faculty had much to do with it, and that in general "mere publicity" was not wholly without efficacy in this case. In all of the cases investigated by committees of inquiry of the Association—where the findings disclosed improper conditions—"publicity" has been followed by pledges of reform, except in one instance, in which the investigation was begun by another body, and therefore could not be carried out in the manner adopted by the Association. It is possible that further measures may sometimes prove necessary; yet certainly the weapon of publicity, honestly and vigorously used, is an immensely formidable one. And it can scarcely be deemed inappropriate that an organization of teachers and men of science should place a good deal of reliance in purely "educational" methods of correcting evils, in the prevailing power of ideas, in the efficacy of a mere true statement of facts, and in the potency of an enlightened public opinion.

It should be added, in conclusion, lest misconception arise, that the "safeguarding of rights," while an essential, is also a minor part of the Association's function, though unforeseen circumstances have given it special prominence in the past year's activities. The general business of the organization, I take it, is simply the improvement of the American universities. That is a business which has many phases; and it is one in which it is essential to go forward without hurry or bluster or impatience, but also without intermittence or discouragement or capitulation to inferior standards.

ARTHUR O. LOVEJOY.

Baltimore, January 18.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. S. B. Fay's account of the recent meeting of the American Historical Association, published in your issue of January 6, gives a very inadequate impression of the reforms accomplished. The vote of confidence that was worked up for the officers was an expression of personal sympathy rather than a vindication, for the Association adopted most of the measures advocated by the reformers.

Let me briefly call attention to some of the things which Professor Fay failed to mention: (1.) He made no reference to the fact that the appointment of a finance committee to conduct an official investigation and to report at the next annual meeting was suggested to the treasurer and brought to a head by the reformers. (2.) He failed to mention the fact that, although members of the editorial board had said that there was no opposition to ownership of the *Review* by the Association, Dr. Jameson urged that action be deferred for another year on the resolution that the "full ownership and control of the *American Historical Review* should be vested in the Association," and that notwithstanding this opposition on the part of the managing editor, the Association voted overwhelmingly for the resolution. (3.) He quite overlooked the important fact that the name of Professor Cheyney, which was printed on the report of the nominating committee in connection with the office of second vice-president, was withdrawn at the last moment because on the editorial board, and replaced by that of William Roscoe Thayer, whom the reformers had long wanted the Association to honor. The reformers have insisted that the members of the editorial board should not also be presidential officers. There is not one of them in the presidential line at present. The old claim of a "prescriptive right" has been killed in a single year. (4.) He failed to refer to the fact that the members of what is euphemistically called "the old guard" were conspicuous by their absence or silence. Dr. Jameson had to conduct his defence without the aid of any of his former associates. Only a few and comparatively recent accessions to the ring came to his assistance. (5.) He failed to give the reformers credit for the correction of the greatest abuse that has ever existed in the Association, namely, the reimbursement of the travelling expenses of many officers and members of committees to the annual meeting. The existence of

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such a practice was not generally known or believed until the reformers published the accounts and distributed them to the members.

JOHN H. LATANE.

Johns Hopkins University, January 12.

[With this letter we must bring the discussion on the American Historical Association to a close.—ED. THE NATION.]

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the account of the meeting of the American Philological Association, printed in your issue of January 13, there is a misleading statement, which may hurt a good cause. It is this: "The sharp differences of opinion existing in the Association as to the desirability of a uniform grammatical terminology for the various languages did not come to the front, since the committee having the matter in charge simply reported 'progress' and asked to be continued." There is no evidence that there has been, or is now, any difference of opinion, either in the Association or outside, regarding the wisdom of the attempt to simplify the teaching of language in the schools through the use of uniform grammatical terms. The Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature was established by the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and the American Philological Association without opposition; its report has been approved by all these bodies, and by the National Council of Teachers of English.

The writer of the article in the *Nation* probably had in mind the fight two years ago, when objection was made to the immediate adoption of the report, on the ground that it contained a mass of details which the Association had not had opportunity to consider. Finally this vote was passed: "That the Association express its sense of the desirability of uniformity of grammatical terminology in the work of the schools; and recommend that the schools follow the general lines of the report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature, with the understanding that this recommendation does not carry with it approval of all the terms proposed in the report." This vote is explained as follows in the *Proceedings* for 1913: "In fairness to all concerned, it may be added that no objections to any particular terms were mentioned in the course of the discussion. It was not implied that important differences of opinion were likely to arise. The purpose of the last clause was understood to be merely to disclaim responsibility for details, such as in the nature of the case could not be brought before the members present at this session."

At the meeting of 1913 it was voted, also, "that the representatives of this Association be authorized to act in its behalf in completing the report and providing for its publication." The Association understood that it had before it the final form of the body of the report, and that the Joint Committee proposed only to add some historical matter and an index. The report has not been thus completed; but it should be clear that the Association has taken definite and conclusive action concerning both the object sought in the formation of the Joint Committee and the results attained by the Committee.

JOHN C. KIRTLAND.

Exeter, N. H., January 17.

Notes

The publication of "Law and Order in Industry," by Julius Henry Cohen, is announced for this week by the Macmillan Co.

"The Side of the Angels," by Basil King, will be published shortly by Harper & Bros.

The Scribners will publish shortly Arthur Ruhl's "Antwerp to Gallipoli: A Year of War on Many Fronts—and Behind Them."

Richard G. Badger announces the forthcoming publication of "Profiles," by Arthur Ketchum.

"The Soul of Woman" is the title of a volume by Paul Jordan Smith, announced for publication by Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco.

The following volumes will be published by Houghton Mifflin Co. on February 19: "Theodore Roosevelt: the Logic of his Career," by Charles G. Washburn; "At the Door of the Gate," by Forrest Reid; "The Psychology of Relaxation," by G. T. W. Patrick; "Industrial Accident Prevention," by David S. Beyer, and "Emmeline," by Elsie Singmaster.

The forthcoming publication of the following volumes is announced by the Columbia University Press: "The Book of the Popes (Liber Pontificalis)," translated and edited by Louise R. Loomis (published as the second volume in the series, Records of Civilization, Sources and Studies); "Shakspere Studies," essays edited by Brander Matthews and Ashley H. Thorndike; "The Law and the Practice of Municipal Home Rule," by Howard L. McBain; "The Presidency: Its Powers, Duties, Responsibilities, and Limitations," lectures by ex-President Taft; "Magna Carta and Other Addresses," by William D. Guthrie.

From the Oxford University Press has now come No. XVIII of the "Oxford Pamphlets, 1914-15," principally relating to the war. This number is a compilation by R. B. Mowat, of Corpus Christi College, of "Select Treaties and Documents to Illustrate the Development of the Modern States-System." A concise, clear introduction sets forth the main facts surrounding the documents, which are arranged in groups: the Triple Entente and Triple Alliance, international guarantees respecting various European territories of interest now or those whose status may be affected by the war, Egypt, territorial cessions, etc. The pamphlet offers in convenient form the essential features of the accessible documents bearing upon the subject to the close of the year 1914. The introduction is not quite free from controversial hints, subtly introduced. The chronological index and the table of contents convert the pamphlet into a convenient reference manual, especially for international agreements since 1900.

Fifteen years is a long time in modern city government, quite long enough to justify Prof. William Bennett Munro in bringing out a successor to the last edition of Prof. Robert C. Brooke's "Bibliography of Municipal Affairs and City Conditions." He calls his substantial volume "A Bibliography of Municipal Government in the United States" (Harvard University Press; $2.50 net). Although, as he remarks, to attempt a complete catalogue of publications relating to this field would be a waste of time and printer's ink, since much of it is transitory or of local interest, he has not been unpractically severe in his standards of admission, but has included elementary along with semi-technical references. His divisions comprise, besides general works, items on political machinery and direct legislation, municipal organization, city planning and public improvements, public utilities, sanitation and public health, public safety, education and general betterment, and municipal finance. Many of these are briefly characterized, and the final touch of usefulness is added in an index of over fifty pages. The volume fills, not a long-felt want, but one felt with increasing keenness.

Mr. Kipling's contribution to the literature of the war is two slim volumes published by Doubleday, Page & Co. (50 cents net each), "France at War" and "The Fringes of the Fleet." Perhaps Kipling, the poet of the British Empire, chose to describe the work in the field of England's ally rather than of England herself, because he judged he should render the greater service by interpreting France to England. There were many ready writers to interpret England to herself, and a sorry botch some of them made of it. With the British fleet, of course, he is in his element. The trawlers which incessantly sweep the seas for mines and fish for submarines appeal particularly to his imagination, and what he has to tell us of the activities of these craft is generally fresh and always interesting. "I should not care," he says, speaking of Teutonic submarines, "to be hunted for the life in shallow waters by a man who knows every bank and pot-hole of them, even if I had not killed his friends the week before." The failure of the submarine "blockade" in the North Sea makes it evident that "Fritz," which is the navy's term for Les Boches, has found the experience unpleasant. At times a trawler makes a mistake and takes a shot at a friendly submarine, like the one who excused herself to an irate naval officer whose periscope she had crumpled, by stammering: "Well, sir, at least you'll admit that our shooting was pretty good"; but that is all in the day's work, just as for the sweeping trawlers is the momentary risk of hitting a mine instead of picking it gingerly from the water. A submerged submarine gets tangled up with a mine and chain, and "so far as I made out, she shook it off by standing on her head and jerking backward." Another was caught in a net by the nose. When she rose to the surface to cut the thing away, she was spotted by a Zeppelin. Sinking again, "by slow working and weaving and wriggling, guided only by guesses at the meaning of each scrape and grind of the net on her blind forehead, at last she drew clear." Then she waited on the bottom for the destroyers that she knew would be summoned by the Zeppelin, torpedoed one of them when they came, and reached her rendezvous in time to warn her friends of the danger. It is a heterogeneous fleet that Kipling describes, heterogeneously manned. A retired admiral, with temporary rank of lieutenant-commander, and punctilious about rendering all due courtesies to admirals "who were midshipmen when he was a commander," is now in charge of a squadron of trawlers protecting the Dogger Bank fish-

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ing fleet. He leads, we are told, "a congregation of very hard men, indeed," who "do precisely what he tells them to, and with him go through strange experiences, because they love him and because his language is volcanic and wonderful." His flagship is an ex-private yacht, one of the many "once clean and respectable, now dirty and happy." Mr. Kipling concludes his entertaining volume with some animadversions on the restraints which a Foreign Office, in his view altogether too tender, imposes on the fleet. "Had we used the navy's bare fist instead of its gloved hand from the beginning, we could, in all likelihood, have shortened the war."

The volume on "The American School" which Walter S. Hinchman, English master in the Groton School, has contributed to the American Books (Doubleday, Page; $1 net), treats in equal divisions of secondary school mechanism and of the spirit in which teacher, pupil, and parent must attempt to make that mechanism work. Mr. Hinchman describes the typical high school and private academy of to-day, with emphasis upon lines of development. He predicts that the high school of to-morrow will find it best, in general, to include a junior school of three years' general training, and a senior school of three years of general, scientific, or vocational instruction. Model curricula are offered, both for the present school and for this one of enlarged scope, with a chapter on Methods which digests, though without credit to Wirt, Dewey, and others, many of the recent ideas for the derivation of the greatest mental discipline from a given course through what Mr. Hinchman calls "growth by production." The point of view in this, as in the chapters upon Athletics and Mortality and Religion, is, on the whole, well balanced. In his discussion of the less easily definable elements in the good secondary school, the writer properly stresses the equipment and personality of the teacher, and dilates at perhaps too great length on those teaching requisites which Prof. G. H. Palmer summarized once for all—"an aptitude for vicariousness, an already accumulated wealth of knowledge, an ability to invigorate life through knowledge, and a readiness to be forgotten." He reviews the steps by which the training of teachers has been improved, and makes a plea for more cordial relations between teacher and public. It is impossible to endorse his plan for improving the "salary situation" by increasing the range between high and low salaries: what is needed is a general elevation of material rewards. Upon some topics treated the book naturally wants adequacy.

Prof. Israel Gollancz's second issue in his series of "Select Early English Poems" (Oxford University Press), "The Parlement of the Thre Ages," is particularly welcome, as the poem (665 lines in all) has hitherto been accessible only in the rare Roxburghe Club edition (1897), also by Professor Gollancz. The manuscripts of the poem (one complete and one fragmentary) both belong to the fifteenth century, but the work itself was doubtless composed in the previous century, and it is plainly a production of the same school of poetry in the north of England in that century which has given ús the better known alliterative poems, "Sir Gawayne and the Grene Knyght," "Patience," etc. Indeed, one of these poems, "Winnere and Wastoure," is most likely from the same pen as "The Parlement of the Thre Ages." In his earlier edition Professor Gollancz printed the two together, and it seems a pity that he has not done so in this instance.

The "Parlement of the Thre Ages" opens with a spirited description, first, of the stalking and then of the "breaking" of a deer. The poet next falls asleep and sees in a vision the Three Ages, Youth, Middle Age, and Old Age, which are each set before us with much picturesque detail. A debate now follows between the first two personifications, but Old Age finally intervenes and, rebuking both, illustrates the vanity of earthly pleasures and the power of Death by the career of the Nine Worthies, three Pagans, three Jews, and three Christians—*viz.*, Hector, Alexander the Great, Julius Cæsar, Joshua, David, Judas Maccabæus, Arthur, Godfrey of Bouillon, and Charlemagne. This speech of Old Age, which takes up the greater part of the poem, contains, among other things, much the fullest list of the heroes and heroines of mediæval romance to be found in Middle English literature.

The critical apparatus consists of a preface, photographic facsimiles of a page from each manuscript, textual, explanatory, and illustrative notes, glossary, index of names, and an appendix which embraces texts that bear on the theme of the Nine Worthies, the earliest being a Latin hymn attributed to the eleventh century. The original of the part of our poem which deals with this subject is the "Vœux du Paon," composed by Jacques de Longuyon near the beginning of the fourteenth century; but to introduce long lists of heroes and heroines of romance in connection with each of the Worthies was the English poet's own idea. Professor Gollancz leaves open the question of the date of the present poem in its relation to the other alliterative poems of the same group. The description of the "breaking" of the deer is so similar to the one in "Sir Gawayne and the Grene Knyght" that the reader is tempted at first sight to assume that the author of the "Parlement" had this great romance before him, but a closer examination shows that not only is he independent, but that he gives a clearer account of the process involved than that which is given in the more famous poem. The vocabulary of these alliterative poems is notoriously difficult, so that the careful glossary of the present volume is especially valuable. Altogether, Professor Gollancz has put so much good work into this edition that one cannot but regret that he did not put somewhat more and make it final. We refer particularly to the preface, where a detailed discussion of the relation of the poem to the other poems of the same general group (in respect to language, etc.) and of the historical development of the theme of the Nine Worthies is obviously desirable.

In his "Savage Man in Central Africa" (London: Fisher Unwin; 12s. 6d. net), M. Adolphe Louis Cureau has produced one of the best books ever written on that country. Whether considered as an intensive ethnological, or indeed even anthropological, study of the primitive black races, or as a logical contribution to sociology, or as a compendium of exciting anecdotes, the critic can find little fault with it. In addition, it possesses the rarest of all traits in books of this character: it is real literature. The translation from the French has been made by E. Andrews, and, while one feels the undercurrent of French art and artlessness, yet the English technique and vocabulary are most satisfying. The *raison d'être*, the apology, and the scope are indicated in the author's opening words, which also prepare the reader for the delightful mode of presentation which is sustained throughout the volume. We quote only the first paragraph:

> The last savage races are disappearing from the world's stage. The few survivors of primitive mankind behold the deterioration of their pristine customs, the vitiation of their artlessly unmoral natures, and the crumbling of their social order's ancient foundations under the rising tide of the European invasion, one-tenth of which is actuated by an enthusiastic desire to spread the blessings of civilization, nine-tenths by the attractions of money-making. Conquest is breaking the normal sequence of their history by an abrupt scission, down the gulf of which their past will soon disappear in the shades of oblivion. No time is to be lost if we would record what were the external and obvious forms of this past, and, more especially, its profound and psychological causes; for the centuries to come will be increasingly less qualified to understand the nature of primitive man.

In most books dealing with the wilds of Africa we have big game as the dominant note, where indeed the personality of the tourist sportsman does not itself hold unquestioned sway. A photograph of a long line of blacks laden with boxes and bundles "on safari" is often the most intimate glimpse we have of these people. M. Cureau makes them live in these pages. We learn of the difference between the blacks of the jungle and those of the open plains, of their senses, egoism, work, merriment, and intelligence in the widest aspect. The larger part of the book deals with the family and the village. An intensely interesting discussion of the bisexual couple is followed by the related subjects of children, slaves, and the history from birth to death of the individual's life in the family. Considering the village as a physical entity, the author describes its actual building, arrangement, and site; as a living entity such phases as time, hygiene, diet, clothing, occupation, and commerce are taken up and discussed in a masterly fashion. Finally come two chapters on the village as an organized and as a moral entity; the first being concerned with legislation, authority, debates, and war, and the second with belief and religion. By means of the vivid, sympathetic treatment with which the author handles his subject we are enabled intimately to appreciate the life and point of view of the lowest of living races of men, as well as to gain an excellent idea of the gradual evolution of mankind from the most primitive types. This volume sets a new standard of balanced, logical treatment combined with charm of style which few authors may hope to equal.

The "Annual Report on Reforms and Progress in Chosen (Korea)" for 1913-1914 presents an interesting summary of the material advance made in the rehabilitation of that distracted country. Apart from the vexed question of the propriety of the absorption under any circumstances of a nation's autonomy by a foreign Power, it must be conceded that conditions of human life and the pursuit of happiness in Korea have been greatly advanced under Japanese control. The year covered by this review is the ninth of the Japanese protectorate and the fourth since annexation was consummated. During this period, while native "politics" by rebel-

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lion and assassination have been suppressed, communications, industries, education, and other measures have been improved or instituted so as to meet the actual needs of the country, "peace and order are now firmly established, and all classes of people in the annexed territory are not only enjoying the benefit of modern civilization, but are also contentedly pursuing their peaceful avocations, fostered by the industrial encouragement of the Government; furthermore, Japanese and Koreans, putting trust in each other, are now engaged in productive industries which are of vital importance in the exploitation of the peninsula." If these words are literally true, Japan has been justified in her action by the consent of the governed race. During the last four years both revenue and expenditure have been much more than doubled, but income has always been kept well within outgo, not including the sixteen or eighteen million yen for civil and military expenses defrayed by the Imperial Government. Revenue of all kinds reached a total of nearly 64,000,000 yen in 1914, when the whole value of the foreign trade for the first time exceeded a hundred million. Less than a third of this total is in exports, and only two countries, Japan and China, seem to buy commodities of any appreciable value from Korea. The meticulous exactitude of these trade statistics is worth noting: Siam, for example, sent goods worth a million in 1913, and 1,837,000 in 1914, against imports to Siam of three yen and five yen, respectively. The United States comes third in the list of countries trading with Korea, with 7 per cent. of the total, against Japan's 65 per cent.

The industrial outlook for Korea is not particularly promising, owing to her lack of coal and iron. Her mineral wealth consists chiefly of gold, a total output of 6,685,000 yen of this being produced in 1913, against coal worth only half a million, and iron less than half this sum. But if materials for the development of manufacturing are wanting, the best promise for Korea appears to be in growing things. Rice, the great staple of the land, increased 12 per cent. in amount produced over 1912, millet 19 per cent., and cocoons 25 per cent., while the planting of American upland cotton increased by 86 per cent. over the same year, and five-fold over 1911. The whole cultivated part of the peninsula is only 13 per cent. of its area. It is upon the expansion of this area, upon reforesting the mountains, and improving the fisheries—the present catch is already worth about thirteen million yen—that the Governor-General places his main emphasis. For this reason, also, the school system has been readjusted so as to give a "common education and industrial training at the outset, in order to build up a solid basis in the people, to encourage their industrial development, and gradually to extend special education by imparting knowledge of the higher branches of science and art along with the advancement of the standard of living and condition of the people." Americans have reason to regard the work of Japan in Korea with considerable sympathy. Her task there is not dissimilar to ours in the Philippines. She has, however, to deal with an older and worthier culture group, and the experiment in nation-making is one of the most important now being carried on anywhere in the world.

"The Christian Doctrine of Prayer," edited by Dr. James Hastings (Scribner; $3), is the first in a series of six volumes on the great Christian doctrines, of which Dr. Hastings is the general editor. The present volume goes into detailed discussions of the objects, times and places, postures, etc., appropriate to prayer. Such profuseness of description may seem unnecessary to the simple soul trying to pour out its hopes to the infinite Spirit. The work is, however, lifted above the character of a mere manual of prayer by the earnest desire of the editor to commend strongly to the Christian world the desirability of supplicating the Deity for the blessings of life. He recognizes the serious nature of certain objections, scientific and philosophical, held by many to the view that prayer is an actual objective force in the world. Thus, it is said that the world is governed by natural law which no human desire can set aside. True, says Dr. Hastings, but man modifies one natural law by utilizing another—a stone thrown up will descend to the earth, according to the law of gravitation, but a man may stretch forth his hand and set aside the effect of gravitation by an upward pressure; and God has at His command a vast number of counterbalancing forces. Yet, admitting that God may thus regulate the effects of one law by bringing another law into play, a more serious difficulty arises when it is asked why God should intervene in this manner at the request of a finite being, one of His own creatures. If the object sought be good, a perfectly good Being must have determined on it from all eternity, in which case prayer is unnecessary, and, if the object be not good, then a human request for it cannot be granted by a good God. This difficulty in the conception of prayer is as old as philosophic reflection, and it cannot be said that the present volume has added anything to attempted solutions of the problem. The impression left on the reader by the discussion will probably be that the efficacy of prayer is subjective—to keep the soul in communion with the divine embodiment of the ethical ideal is in so far to maintain it in an atmosphere that may secure the possession of the ethical blessings asked for.

Sir Dyce Buckworth's "Views on Some Social Subjects" (Macmillan) consists of a collection of twenty essays or addresses presented for the most part between the years 1902 and 1913 before gatherings of medical students, physicians, or nurses, or societies interested in the social side of medicine. One group of six addresses has to do with the physician, his training, ideals, and his relation to his professional brothers and to the community. These treat of "Knowledge and Wisdom" and "Reverence and Hopefulness" in medicine, "The Dignity of Medicine." "The Ministry of Healing," "The Attitude of the Sick toward the Physician," and "Relationship between the Medical and Lay Staffs of Hospitals." Three bear directly on sick-nursing—nursing as a woman's mission, nursing and the needs of the invalid and suggestions for the conduct of sick-nurses—while in another group essays on conduct may be found, as that addressed to young naval medical officers and a second entitled "Lapses from Christian Conduct in the Lives of Young Men in the Tropics and How to Deal with Them." Closely related to these are discussions of Sunday observance, the alcohol question and temperance, and legislation in dealing with habitual drunkards. One address touches on the old conflict, "Science and Christian Faith," and in another is presented "Christian Science and Faith Healing." In this last, the author pays his respect to Boston as the home of Christian Science:

> As regards this new doctrine of healing the sick by means of prayer and the exercise of faith, we find, first, that it comes from America. That, to my mind, at once arouses a suspicion as to its origin. It comes from Boston, a city I know well, having twice visited it, a city which is a perennial source of false doctrine, which produces, and contains, more unstable men and women than any other city I know. To prove this allegation, I will only ask you to read the Saturday edition of any Boston newspaper, and note the long lists of so-called religious services advertised for the following Sunday. If that does not excite your wonder and your pity, I am sorry for you.

Other addresses, given before lay audiences, treat of the work and recreations of the human body, the dust problem, and the probable place and prospects of women in the nineteenth century. As the expression of the point of view of a busy English consultant who has a wide knowledge of human nature and has devoted his efforts, in part, to other fields than that of medicine, the book is of interest; but as an exposition of medicine in its relation to present-day social problems it is disappointing.

In "Closed Doors" (Houghton Mifflin; $1 net), which is a little volume of seven short stories written with the purpose, as Dr. Cabot has put it in his introduction, of revealing the "essential drama of the human soul still bravely enacted behind blind eyes and deaf ears," the author, Miss Margaret Prescott Montague, rises well to her opportunity. For in the moving quality of these tales of the deaf and the blind children herded together in a boarding school supported by the State, the author reaches the emotions of the reader and at the same time presents her problem without preaching or mawkishness. Best of all is perhaps "Why it was W-on-the Eyes," the story of Webster, the deaf boy whose efforts to learn to speak were the marvel of his teachers until they found out the secret of his diligence and application. His mother was blind, and there was no possible means of communication between them until the son had learned to talk. The love of his mother in that child's heart conquered every obstacle with ease. In "Cain, the Key" Miss Montague tells of a girl, recently blind, who longed for a spot in which to be quiet and "invite her soul." The confusion of the school appalled her, particularly when she wished to write verses to please the teacher she loved and to obtain a prize. She was good and gentle until she found that hours of solitude in a vacant room were the punishment inflicted for naughtiness. Then she became a veritable wildcat until she had been sent into seclusion and had time to compose her verses, when she remarked, "It'll be nice to be good again," and recited to her teacher some lines so instinct with the joy of living that one reads them with gratitude to Miss Montague for this bit of a child's psychology. Miss Montague's stories are not all tragedies, as witness the tale of the boy who was admitted to the school because deaf and nearly blind. It was found that his ears were full of pebbles and his eyes had been dimmed by self-applied iodoform and wood alcohol! Altogether these are valuable child-pictures, with an excellent insight into the latest methods of teaching, while the advantages of very early instruction in speech and in lip-reading for deaf children are properly emphasized.

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Science

If ever a great man was the object of "faint praise," and of its running mate, forgetfulness, that man was Spencer F. Baird. Since his death in 1887, twenty-eight years have elapsed; yet nowhere is there to his memory an adequate monument, or memorial, or even a statue by "act of Congress." Professor Baird was a man whom all America should remember with gratitude and affection, and whose name and record should be cherished. As the creator of the United States Fish Commission, he designed and built a great machine whose power reaches to the uttermost parts of our national possessions, and whose products benefit the daily bill of fare of a hundred million people. This child of the brain and hand of Baird, and of the confidence reposed in him by Congress, earned and enjoyed both the admiration and the envy of all Europe. And strange to say, Baird accomplished the creation of the Fish Commission practically alone and single-handed. In that bureau there was no G. Brown Goode to assist him, as there was in the National Museum. Dr. William H. Dall's "Spencer Fullerton Baird: a Biography" (Philadelphia: Lippincott; $3.50 net) leaves something to be desired. It is not what can be called a fine, adequate story of the life of Baird and his achievements. It is chiefly a collection of letters, and of the quoted opinions of others. We regret that Dr. Dall did not put more of himself into the work, and less of others. The letters are all very well in their way, but we could have wished for a perspective of the Grand Old Man of American zoölogy that would have done full justice both to his scientific stature and to his greatness of heart.

Spencer F. Baird at work always reminded one of the huge Corliss engine of the Centennial Exposition—colossal, powerful, silent, and effective. While others rushed to the platform and the spot-light, Baird smiled benignly and silently kept on with his tasks. Personal publicity was his pet aversion. His unflagging spirit of kind helpfulness radiated from him in every direction, shining afar. No one will ever know how many careers he shaped, how many struggling fortunes he promoted. His influence upon American zoölogy was, by force of circumstances and the hour, incalculable. His work was not mainly that of an investigator. He was the greatest promoter of zoölogical foundations and progress that this country has known. He lived at a time when such efforts were hungrily called for, and he was the man for the hour. With the death of his chosen apostle, Dr. G. Brown Goode, the Baird type vanished, and we are not likely to see it again. Dr. Dall's biography is distinguished by the thoroughness of its quoted records. Genealogical data as well as miscellaneous and often irrelevant correspondence have been lavishly included; the authenticity of a generous assortment of facts is established; but automatically the writing is robbed of its flavor and spontaneity. It is well within the province of a biography to recreate a man, to give not a photograph of his face and his habits, but a living likeness of his character, and to erect a monument to his genius and his work. Such a biography becomes a great human document, instead of a record of cold facts. Nevertheless, we are profoundly grateful to the author for having brought together in one volume this fine collection of facts and opinions on the character, career, and achievements of one of our greatest American zoölogists.

"The Whole Year Round," by Dallas Lore Sharp (Houghton, Mifflin; $2 net), is composed of four smaller books, named after the seasons, which have been used separately as nature readers in the schools. Mr. Sharp's style is of such excellent quality that he found it possible with very little change to make many of the essays of interest to a wider circle of readers. Even so, there is comparatively little philosophy in these pages, and the straightforward method of narration lends itself excellently to reading aloud to children. Some of the chapter headings of Spring will indicate the general scope: An Old Apple Tree, Things to See, Things to Do and Things to Hear this Spring, If You Had Wings, The Palace in the Pig-Pen, Turtle Eggs for Agassiz, and Woods Medicine. A few of the chapters deal with rather distant scenes, such as the sea-birds of the Pacific Coast, and Klameth Lake coyotes. The separate pagination of each booklet is rather regrettable. Thus one has a strong sense of the conscious assembling of rather unrelated subjects in an uncongenial binding. The dim, inartistic margins of holly, iris, and woodbine are disconcerting on the printed page and startlingly conspicuous on blank pages, suggesting empty picture frames. Mr. Sharp as usual brings his skilled eyes into play and his powers to record carefully what he sees, but in the fifth chapter when dealing with the wings of birds he discourses at length from a wholly inaccurate premise. He states that the feathers in the tail of a crow may be renewed at any time of the year, while if a feather from the wing be lost it will not be replaced until the period of the annual moult. As a matter of fact, the wing feathers may be made to reproduce themselves more often than the tail in the course of a year, and the actual renewal of any lost feather is quite independent of the moulting season. The illustrations are excellent, an index is lacking, and the volume is very heavy. These three facts sum up the entire work as a mingling of good and regrettable qualities.

The scope of Herbert K. Job's "The Propagation of Wild Birds" (Doubleday, Page; $2 net) is clearly shown by the title, although the dedication errs in calling it the first manual of applied ornithology. Both in England and in this country volumes have already appeared dealing with this subject. Excellent as it is, Mr. Job's work would have been much more valuable if he had gone over the literature more carefully before beginning to write. It is divided into three parts: I, General Methods with Gallinaceous Birds and Others; II, The Propagation of Wild Waterfowl, and III, Methods with the Smaller Land Birds. The bob-white or quail is taken as a type of gallinaceous bird, and the recent work in this field is digested and presented in easily referable form. Almost every long paragraph carries a sub-title in black type after the style of textbooks, an excellent feature in a work of this kind. Under the inspiration of his trips to the Northwest in search of the eggs and young of wild ducks, Mr. Job's chapters on these birds are very full. In fact, they contain an unnecessary amount of detail, tending rather to obscure the more vital points of interest to the reader desirous of rearing these birds. The chapter on swans, on the other hand, is barely a page in length, a wholly inadequate treatment of a very important group of birds. The New York Zoölogical Society and other institutions have published much of interest in regard to this and related groups which might with advantage have been incorporated or mentioned. The final part, on Methods with the Smaller Land Birds, is a competent account of the use of nesting-boxes and artificial drinking and feeding places, and contains suggestions as to the best shrubs and other plants for attracting birds. Many of the illustrations are excellent and informing. A third are quite useless, owing either to actual poorness of the negatives or to inappropriateness of the subject. The style of writing is without any literary merit whatsoever, but the purpose of the book is information, not literature. On the whole, it well fulfils its purpose as a guide to the propagation of the wild feathered creatures of our country.

The forethought and admirable planning which have characterized the general movement for the protection of birds and animals in the United States are well shown by one of the latest achievements of the National Association of Audubon Societies. This is a neatly bound, well-printed booklet of seventy pages with seven colored plates devoted to Alaskan Bird-life. Eight thousand copies of this have been issued for free distribution to the people of that northern land. As the channel of distribution is through the Government Commissioner of Education, teachers and schools will be certain to benefit by this unusual gift. The text is partly original, partly a compilation from the best students of Alaskan ornithology, but is ably edited and excellently produced. It is both accurate and popularly written. Mr. T. Gilbert Pearson, general secretary of the Audubon Societies, conceived this plan and deserves full credit for its successful conclusion. It should prove of immense value in acquainting the children of Alaska with the bird-life of their wonderful country and in anticipating and consequently postponing the time when the danger of extermination touches as closely the birds as it already has touched the big game of our boreal territory.

In his capacity as Curator of Lower Vertebrates in the Gardens of the London Zoological Society, Mr. E. G. Boulenger has excellent opportunities for observing the members of the two groups of animals described as "Reptiles and Batrachians" (Dutton: $6 net). He has produced a thoroughly comprehensive account of the more important species of the world, arranged in systematic order, and written in a spirit of leniency towards the layman. The amount of classification which is presented is sufficient logically to connect successive groups without giving offence to the untechnical reader. The account of the habits of life is as complete as the compass of a single volume will permit. The part relating to Amphibians or, as the author prefers, Batrachians, is of the greater interest and includes many recently published details of the remarkable lives of these creatures. The figures in the text are of negligible value, but the numerous photographic plates are admirable, those of frogs and of salamanders under water being unusually clear and distinct. As the author deals for the most part with known facts and not theories, criticism on this point is unnecessary. But though the volume is up to date and thoroughly accurate, we must register a regret that Boulenger the younger, like so many writers on scientific subjects, has not given a tithe of the care to his diction that a writer of fiction is compelled to do. If fertility in

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simile and turn of phrase, if facility and variety were sought in presenting so necessary a plethora of facts, a book like this would appeal to a much wider circle, and arouse more enthusiasm in the reader unlearned in reptile lore, but appreciative of sympathetic presentation. The work forms an excellent supplementary volume to the evolutionary treatment of the same groups recently brought out by Lydekker, Cunningham, and Boulenger the elder.

"Contributions to the Founding of the Theory of Transfinite Numbers" (Open Court Publishing Co.; $1.25 net) is the first volume of a series of scientific and philosophic classics which this publishing house has arranged to issue. The initial work is a good beginning. It consists of a translation into English by Mr. Philip E. B. Jourdain of Georg Cantor's two great memoirs of 1895 and 1897 dealing in a fundamental way with the epoch-making conception of transfinite numbers, or numbers greater than any finite number, however large. The conception is among the most fruitful ideas in modern mathematics and modern philosophy. To this work of Cantor's the translator has prefixed an introduction of 82 pages, tracing from the work of Fourier certain lines in the development of modern mathematical analysis down to the later work of Cantor. The volume closes with valuable notes respecting the most recent literature concerned with Cantor's ideas.

McCullough's "Practical Surveying" (D. Van Nostrand Co.; $2 net) is an attempt to teach the science and art of surveying to interested persons whose mathematical training has not gone beyond the arithmetic of the grade schools. Its large size (401 pages) is due partly to the presence of a great number of illustrations, but is mainly due to the necessity of explaining many simple mathematical and other ideas that the properly trained engineer acquires in high school or in college. Most of the explanations are rather "practical" than scientific. The author is an experienced engineer, and his book is about as valuable as a book can be whose aim is to enable a candidate for the profession of surveyor to circumvent the necessity of acquiring an adequate scientific training.

Drama

"MARGARET SCHILLER."

Intelligence is not a characteristic of Mr. Hall Caine's new "war play," which was produced last week at the New Amsterdam Theatre with Miss Elsie Ferguson in the leading rôle. It is simply crude melodrama which takes no account of the probabilities of the situation it postulates and relies for any effect it may have on obvious tricks of the trade. The prologue prepares us for the worst, when we are presented with a meeting of the inner circle of the British Cabinet at the Prime Minister's house. The Ministers are awaiting Germany's reply, or failure to reply, to the British ultimatum. A butler wanders in and out, and so is in a position, if he is not thoroughly trustworthy, to inform the British democracy concerning the pious platitudes emitted by its leaders in time of crisis. A child's cry is heard (apparently the nursery is next door to the Cabinet chamber) and the Prime Minister anxiously excuses himself, which gives his colleagues a chance to tell the audience all about his past life and what a good fellow he really is. The meeting ends with the striking of the inevitable clock, which comes as a relief, for we have been a long time waiting for it, and, as the Ministers are getting ready to depart, the Prime Minister's sister-in-law wanders in, without knocking, to talk to her brother-in-law about engaging a Swiss governess with a German name, to whom the Prime Minister's late wife had taken a fancy.

We need not follow the plot through. The crudities and impossibilities of the prologue are nothing to what happens when the real thing begins. It is enough to say that Margaret Schiller, having a grievance against the Prime Minister because she and her family are subjected to inconvenience as "enemy aliens," manages to substitute herself for the Swiss governess in his household, and though the Prime Minister finds out all about it he lets Margaret stay on, protecting her from an astute Chief of Police, because her purpose to do him evil has been changed through what she has learned of his innate nobility of character. In the end she sacrifices her own life to save him from assassination plotted by her family.

Stretching charity to its limits, we can say for Mr. Caine that he has endeavored to present impartially the point of view of the British Government in its dealings with enemy aliens and that of the aliens themselves, and that he has given a fairly good exposition of the inevitable hardships that occur. For the cheap theatricality of his method there is nothing to be said, except that there are occasional situations which are effective. Norman Trevor gave a dignified and gentlemanlike performance as Sir Robert Temple, the impossible Prime Minister; Warburton Gamble made the minor rôle of the Chief of Police stand out conspicuously, and an excellent little bit of character work was done by Gareth Hughes as Otto Schiller. Miss Ferguson was disappointing as Margaret Schiller, particularly in view of the excellent work which she has done in other rôles. Speaking most of the part in a monotone, in the rare passages where she allowed emotion to have rein she seemed to lose control of her words and rose in crescendo to unintelligibility. For this the acoustic properties of the theatre may have been partly to blame, but the possibilities of the rôle were not realized and the performance lacked flexibility. S. W.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD PLAYHOUSE.

The Neighborhood Playhouse continues, in the performance of Mrs. Havelock Ellis's "The Subjection of Kezia" and George J. Hamlen's "The Waldies," its effort to provide wholesome drama at low prices for a congested tenement district. The former, a comedy in one act, dealing with Joe Pengilley's resolution to reduce his shrewish wife to an attitude more favorable to domestic peace, and with his *volte-face*, when he discovers, as he is about to begin whipping her, that she is soon to bear a child, proves a rather thin piece of dramatic work. The three-act play which deals with the family fortunes of the Waldies, middle-class English people suddenly raised to great wealth, is, however, both entertaining and thoughtful. In the head of the household, a curmudgeonish old manufacturer, his two daughters, his scapegrace and weak-willed son, and the fiancé of one of the girls, there is deft and firmly outlined characterization; and the plot, revolving about a revival and the theft of an engagement ring, has considerable ingenuity.

A. N.

"MOONLIGHT MARY."

It is becoming evident that Miss Rose Stahl was rather injured than helped by her success some years ago in "The Chorus Lady." Then and there it was set down by managers that she was fitted to enact a certain type of character and no other. In consequence, they have cast about for a play similar to the one in which she succeeded. The latest experiment, written by George V. Hobart, and produced at the Fulton Theatre, presents Miss Stahl in the customary rôle of benevolent elder sister. In so far as there are complications, they concern her charge, who has left the small town of her birth up-State for a career in the metropolis. That this young sister is supposed to be the mistress of a rich young man furnishes Miss Stahl, in her capacity as guardian, with plenty of chance to exercise her proper function, until it is discovered that the *liaison* is nothing more harmful than a secret marriage. The play is melodrama of the sweety sort. F.

To many persons interested in the theatre and its literature, but without much time to devote to the study of either, the two substantial and handsomely printed volumes entitled "The Masterpieces of Modern Drama" (Doubleday, Page; $2 net, each) will doubtless be welcome. They will enable them without much trouble to gain a speaking acquaintance with a considerable number of notable dramas by well-known authors. To more inquisitive and careful readers they are likely to provide as much aggravation as satisfaction. Each volume deals with thirty plays, the one set being selections from English and American, the other from continental, works. The dialogue of certain prominent scenes in each play is printed entire, while the narrative of the excluded acts and scenes is given in abridgment. This work has been done by John A. Pierce, who proves himself proficient in the art of intelligent condensation, and exhibits sound judgment in his excerpts. But these samples, although as liberal probably as the exigencies of space would permit, and often characteristic, only provoke the appetite for more, and are wholly insufficient as proof of the merits or demerits of the complete composition. The most significant achievement of a dramatist is frequently to be found, not in his climactic scenes themselves, but in the preliminary preparation for them, and especially in the development of character. In a scheme of this sort much of the literary and constructive skill of the author, perhaps the best of his artistic craftsmanship, is necessarily left to the imagination. In this way substantial injustice is done to several plays in the collection and their writers. Prof. Brander Matthews, in a general preface, says that one object of these volumes is to encourage the reading of plays. It is permissible to doubt the efficacy of the method adopted. Of the sixty plays in the two lists the great majority are fairly representative of their respective authors, but "masterpiece" is a bold description for some of them. Few good judges would venture to apply it, for instance, to the clever "Disraeli" of Louis N. Parker, the "Shenandoah" of Bronson Howard, the "Secret Service" of

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William Gillette, the "Moth and the Flame" of Clyde Fitch, the "Strongheart" of W. C. De Mille, the "Paid in Full" of Eugene Walter, or "The Return of Peter Grimm," by David Belasco. Popularity is no sure test of literary, artistic, or dramatic value. In the continental list, where the choice was more ample, greater discretion is displayed, although several of the plays might justly be marked with a query. Among the most famous writers illustrated are Tennyson, A. W. Pinero, H. A. Jones, Oscar Wilde, Bernard Shaw, J. M. Barrie, J. M. Synge, John Galsworthy, and William Vaughn Moody, among the writers in English, and Emil Augier, Alexandre Dumas (*fils*), Sardou, Pailleron, Lavendan, François Coppée, Rostand, Brieux, Ibsen, Echégaray, Tolstoy, Hauptmann, and Maeterlinck, among those of foreign tongue. The translations, upon cursory examination, appear to be smooth and literal without any attempt to reflect peculiarities of style. Perhaps this was safer than the employment of paraphrase, but it does not add spice to the dialogue. In some cases there was very little in the original.

In "Another Book on the Theatre" (Huebsch; $1.50) Mr. George Jean Nathan furnishes a striking example of the foolish excesses into which a man, with wide knowledge of his subject and much natural ability, may be betrayed by the lack of all sense of proportion and a determination to be "smart" at all hazards. He is a sharp and shrewd observer and has a serviceable vein of satirical humor—which he employs occasionally with mildly amusing effect in the discussion of subjects wholly frivolous and unimportant—and an extensive vocabulary which he often abuses in the construction of polysyllabic impertinences. In his remarks upon more considerable matters, such as the relative merits of more or less serious plays and dramatists, he exhibits a total incapacity, or disinclination, for sane estimate or judicious comparison. He contents himself with disposing of most of them in casual and ill-assorted volleys of vitriolic or sneering paragraphs. Most of it is wofully cheap and sophomorical stuff, a labored and unscrupulous waste of indisputable talent. But there are pages, here and there, in this reckless collection of pert scribblings, which are pregnant and true. Mr. Nathan knows the tricks and ways of the contemporaneous theatre and pours wholesome and vigorous ridicule upon them. The grosser humbugs of the star system, the idiotic puffery of third-rate performers, the managerial pretence of public demand, the real status of the ordinary musical show, with its imbecilities and vulgarities, and kindred topics, he handles without gloves. But all these are flagrant features of the existent situation, which have often been assailed and with much more obvious sincerity of purpose. In his assumed attitude of general iconoclast Mr. Nathan, apparently, has taken Bernard Shaw for his model. In his affectation of omniscience and audacity, he is not an unworthy disciple of the dazzling Irishman. The really distinctive characteristics of the latter's work, his wit, incisiveness, rich intellectual equipment, and dialectical skill, are not so easily counterfeited.

"The Treasure," by the Jewish dramatist, David Pinski, achieved the distinction of a production by Reinhardt at Berlin in 1910. An English translation of it, from the Yiddish, is now furnished (B. W. Huebsch; $1 net), by Ludwig Lewisohn, with a brief introductory preface. Beyond question it is a notable work, strangely interesting as a vivid and naturalistic study of life and character in a small town within the Russian Jewish Pale. No one reading it can doubt its essential veracity. Of that the internal evidence is abundant. The pervading drabness and squalor of the piece, relieved only by the biting satirical humor with which it is pungently seasoned, would probably prevent its success upon the acting stage, except before a very special audience. It is, indeed, rather a manifesto than a play, though cast in the form of practicable drama, of which all the meaning does not lie upon the surface. Mr. Lewisohn's interpretation of it as a poet's vision of the effects of youth's natural craving for the joys of living, stimulated by grinding poverty, seems somewhat fanciful. More obviously, and more significantly, it is meant to demonstrate the destruction of the finer natural instincts and all spiritual aspirations by the greed of gain. The message which it conveys, though local and racial in its application, is of general significance. The boldness of it, considering its authorship, is remarkable. Judke, the crazy son of a poor gravedigger, while burying his dog in the Jewish cemetery, finds a handful of gold coins. Having quarrelled with his mother, he gives them to his sister, Tille, who spends most of them on cheap finery, while bragging to the neighbors of the discovery. Soon the reputed treasure assumes vast dimensions, and the distracted gravedigger, who has not fingered a copeck, is beset by marriage brokers, charitable collectors, local officials, rabbis, and leaders of the community, all eager to wheedle or cozen him out of it. Tille, meanwhile, intoxicated with her new importance, does her best to foster the popular delusion. When the unhappy man tells the truth, he is denounced as an impostor, threatened with imprisonment, and discharged from his post. Finally, the population, young and old, heedless of the dead, ravage the cemetery in search of the non-existent wealth. In a brief, weird epilogue, the dead rise at midnight, to visit the synagogue and discuss the incidents of the night. The burden of their cry is that the dead are no better than the living, but would have acted in the same way in similar circumstances. "Money! Money! Money!" they wail in ghostly chorus. "Generation after generation is the same." "Surely," says one, "there must be a goal." "Only God knows it," replies another. "The discovery," says a third, "will be man's greatest victory." Here is the one inspiring note in a play which, despite its occasional broad humors, is full of dreary pessimism. Misery, degradation, ignorance, avarice, and superstition are its distinguishing characters. The household of Chone, the gravedigger, is as tragic a picture of domestic wretchedness as ever was limned, and all the more impressive for its indisputable realism. The gloom of it is emphasized, rather than alleviated, by the audacious levities of the revolting Tille. All the other personages are greedy, base, afflicted, credulous, or unutterably sordid. The underlying motive, of course, is to reveal the conditions resulting from a long course of savage religious and political persecution—the material and spiritual ruin wrought by man's inhumanity to man—and the sincerity of purpose and vigor of illustration make ample amends for a good many crudities in technical workmanship. Imagination of no common order is shown in the graveyard scenes, and there is no lack of dramatic situation. Mr. Pinski is likely soon to take a prominent place among contemporary dramatists.

Music

MME. BARRIENTOS AND ROSSINI.

Had Rossini lived until the present day he would be celebrating his thirty-first birthday this month, for he was born in 1792 on the 29th of February. His most famous opera, "The Barber of Seville," was born just a century ago; its first performance was at Rome on February 5, 1816. The manager of the Metropolitan brought this date to the attention of opera-goers by reviving the "Barber" on February 5, 1916, with Maria Barrientos in the part of Rosina—a part in which Patti, Sembrich, and other coloratura sopranos used to achieve some of their greatest triumphs. Five days before presenting her version of Rosina, the new Spanish prima donna appeared as the heroine of Donizetti's "Lucia di Lammermoor," achieving a brilliant success.

Maria Barrientos would have been heard by the New York public two years ago if Oscar Hammerstein had not been obliged to give up his plans for his new opera house on Lexington Avenue. She had had a successful career of a decade or so when she married a wealthy Englishman in Argentina and for several years retired from the stage. That she made no miscalculation in returning to it and trying to conquer a new country was shown by the packed audience—a real "Caruso audience"—and its frequent outbursts of enthusiasm over her Lucia, at her North American début. Even in Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro, where she was a particular favorite, she could not have been applauded with more zeal. This must have been particularly gratifying to her, for it is not likely that she ever sang in a more trying place than the Metropolitan Opera House.

The auditorium of this building is unnecessarily large—much larger, for example, than that of the Scala in Milan, which nevertheless holds a larger number of spectators. The vast expanse of our opera house seems to frighten and demoralize singers, most of whom, disregarding the advice of the critics, think it necessary to force their voices, thus marring their euphony. Mme. Barrientos did not fall into this trap. Although her voice is not large (it seemed at times like the stage seen through an inverted opera-glass), she made it carry to the remotest parts of the house. This carrying power of a voice when used softly is one of the great tests of quality and purity, and the Spanish prima donna stood it well. It was only in ensemble numbers that the lack of volume proved a real disadvantage: the sextet, in particular, lost some of its thrilling effect because the soprano did not rise in it to a climax sufficiently loud to dominate the other parts.

While the tones of her voice, from the lowest to the high E flat, are not all of equal charm, she uses them with rare vocal art. Few singers of her type have shown intelli-

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gence and taste equal to hers. She has also the ease and brilliancy of execution which are so dear to lovers of florid singing. The great Italian masters would have applauded her for her *messa di voce*, or her art of *filar un suono*—of spinning fine tones and swelling or decreasing them gradually. In her scales there is no indistinctness or blurring, and her *staccati* are airy and dazzling. As an actress, also, she appeared to advantage, and her costumes were devised with reference to the part in the plot she played rather than with the object of calling attention to herself as the prima donna of the occasion. In other words, although Mme. Barrientos appeared in an old-fashioned opera, she applied to it also some of the modern refinements.

Donizetti's "Lucia" is a masterwork of its kind, even if its orchestra does merely play the part of "a huge guitar," as Wagner characterized it. Not a few who attended the début of Mme. Barrientos doubtless remember the time when this work, with "Il Trovatore" and "Il Barbiere di Siviglia," formed the backbone of the operatic repertory, as "Aïda" and the works of Wagner and Puccini do now. It is an historic fact that at one time there was such a craze over Rossini that in Vienna, for instance, in the year 1823, none but his operas were performed. It is also on record that when, a hundred years after Rossini's birth, a meeting was called of his admirers to celebrate this event in New York, only three persons came, besides a journalist who recorded the fact. In his day, Rossini was so surfeited with applause and financial success that he refused —though the managers got on their knees before him—to write another opera after "William Tell," though he lived thirty-nine years after that was produced.

Richard Wagner devotes many pages of his "Opera and Drama" (an excellent English version of which by Edwin Evans has been published by the Scribners) to a searching analysis of the causes of Rossini's immediate success and ultimate failure. He had an unceasing supply of melody; he knew how to avail himself of the brilliant vocal art of the prima donnas of his time, including Patti; and he cared not a straw what the scholars and the critics thought of him. He wrote for the fashion of his day, and with that fashion his music passed away. Wagner admits that Rossini had the genius to do much greater things than he accomplished, but he does not refer in detail to some of the remarkable reforms which were introduced in Italian opera by that composer. Rossini refused, for one thing, to write for the male sopranists; he compelled the spoiled singers to use his vocal ornaments instead of their own; he introduced Mozartean coloring in his operas; and he was the first Italian to write solo parts for the bass voice.

That his "Barber of Seville" is a charming opera when properly presented was admitted even by Wagner after he had heard it in Turin. It was probably better done there, on the whole, than at the Metropolitan last Saturday, when the performance suffered particularly from the lack of elasticity and lightness of touch in the conducting of Signor Bavagnoli. As Rosina, Mme. Barrientos again gave much pleasure to a large audience by the beauty of her voice, her smooth and brilliant execution, and particularly also by the genuine Spanish coloring she gave the part as an actress. Another Spaniard in the cast was Mr. de Segurola, for years a member of the Metropolitan company. His Don Basilio is amusing, without being able to efface memories of Chaliapin and Eduard de Reszke.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Art

COLONIAL AMERICA.

The Architecture of Colonial America. By Harold Donaldson Eberlein. Illustrated from photographs by Mary H. Northend and others. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.50 net.

Mr. Eberlein has gathered into a single handy volume a large amount of information and a considerable number of excellent illustrations of early American architecture heretofore available only in separate treatises and collections. The student who wishes to specialize in this department and the architect desirous of material covering all its various phases can, it is true, have recourse to the volumes and portfolios of Crane, Corner, Soderholz, Chandler, Everett, Wallis, Desmond and Croly, and others, the monumental history of the Capitol at Washington by Glenn Brown, the researches of Kimball on Thomas Jefferson, the photographs of Salem by Cousins, and other like sources. We are accumulating a considerable body of technical literature in this field, but no one has yet ventured on the task of collecting and collating this accumulated material in a single *magnum opus*, an authoritative history of this most important branch of American art, and possibly the time is not yet fully ripe for such an undertaking. Meanwhile Mr. Eberlein has attempted the more modest task of summarizing our present knowledge of the subject in a brief but well-compacted survey intended primarily for the "general reader," which means a large and intelligent public interested otherwise than professionally in our so-called Colonial architecture; and he has done his work so well that the professional architect and the specialist may also find it a useful addition to his library.

Mr. Eberlein distinguishes between American Colonial architecture and the architecture of Colonial America, using the term Colonial in the first instance to designate all the pre-Georgian local styles, while as applied to America it designates a period rather than a style. It seems to the reviewer unwise to use the word thus in two senses; unwise because tending to confusion and running counter to general usage. The distinction between the earlier local styles and the later Georgian is perfectly just, but they are all Colonial styles as belonging to the Colonial period, and it would have been wiser to call the earlier developments by some other name than Colonial. Pre-Georgian would, for instance, adequately designate them. The advent of the Georgian manner is suitably characterized as the adoption not merely of English forms, but of a formal and monumental spirit and conception in design.

Mr. Eberlein's historical Introduction is broadly sketched and sufficient for the purpose. The succeeding chapters discuss in order the Colonial Architecture of New England, of the Middle Colonies, and of the South; The Georgian Mode in New England, New York, the Middle Colonies, and the South; The Post-Colonial Period or Classic Revival; Public Buildings, Churches, Materials, and Early Architects. The survey is thus seen to be comprehensive; naturally, in a volume of 274 pages of text, the treatment is summary and concise. By the consequently necessary omissions one is made conscious of the real extent of the field. Thus St. Paul's Church on Broadway and St. Michael's and St. Peter's at Charleston are barely mentioned; the interesting churches on the Green at New Haven, the South and Center Churches in Hartford, and the beautiful Baptist Church in Providence, not at all. It seems to the reviewer that even so brief a treatise might well have had more to say about Portsmouth, N. H., which preserves to-day more of the old Colonial flavor than any other town in New England, unless it be Salem. Space might have been gained for much that has been left out by omitting the chapter on the buildings of the post-Colonial period and classic revival, which after all belong neither to the Colonial style nor to Colonial America.

Mr. Eberlein avoids raising or even mentioning the controversies that have arisen concerning the exact status as architects of Thomas Jefferson, Dr. Kearsley, John McComb, and others, the real authorship of the Richmond State Capitol and of the New York City Hall, and other like questions. He writes freely and easily, and is generally careful as to dates and historical facts. Such very English spellings as cyder, odour, pourtray, and the like are unusual in an American book. There is a sufficient index; a bibliography of the subject would have added to the value of this excellent work.

Eugen Neuhaus's "The Art of the Exposition" (San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.; $1.50) is of an irritating unevenness. The English is ragged and unidiomatic. The criticism, however, is unconventional and independent, sometimes notably good. The book, with its nearly thirty plates, will serve very well its memorial purpose.

Sixty finely executed plates of well-chosen objects of art are the attraction of "Art Treasures of Great Britain" (Dent-Dutton; $5 net). The editor, C. H. Collins Baker, has avoided perfunctory selections. Naturally,

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the Parthenon marbles lead, but there is no Titian except the little pastoral landscape in the Royal collections, no Raphael—though one of the finest drawings might well have represented him. The editor has the courage to include several recent or living English artists, Frank Potter, P. Wilson Steer, Augustus John, D. Y. Cameron. Amid pictures and sculptures are scattered enamels, ivories, porcelains, pottery, and metal work, usually reproduced in colors. Vermeer is represented by the Buckingham Palace Music Lesson, Velasquez by the Lady with a Mantilla at Devonshire House, Goya by an admirable woman's portrait from the collection of the late Sir Hugh Lane—all of which shows both sense of quality in the editor and commendable avoidance of too obvious examples. The plates are mostly photogravures. To turn the leaves of the thin quarto is like a visit to a small but very choice gallery. It is a gift book of superior sort.

Mr. Howard C. Levis has added another to the books written by him for print-lovers. The title clearly states its object: "Extracts from the Diaries and Correspondence of John Evelyn and Samuel Pepys Relating to Engraving, with Notes by Howard C. Levis" (London: Ellis.). The little volume will attract all who, like Mr. Levis, are "interested in the literature of the art and history of engraving, and the collecting of prints." Evelyn and Pepys both were no strangers to print-shops. The former, when in Paris in December, 1649-50, saw Della Bella's plates, looked up Bosse and Perelle, and soon after sat to Nanteuil. Twenty years later he wrote Pepys to "forget not to visit the *Taille-douce* shops, and make collection of what they have excellent." Pepys himself we find writing to his nephew in 1700, asking him to look out for prints of bull-fights, when in Spain. (And back in 1663-4 he was fining himself when he indulged his fancy for prints, in order to cure himself of "one of his extravagances"!) These extracts are plentifully sprinkled with references to engravers in England, and to matters such as Evelyn's initiation into the mysteries of mezzotint, the use of satin instead of paper when printing engravings, the pantagraph, and print cleaning. There is a list of contemporary print-sellers, and Mr. Levis has appended material on Evelyn's etchings, the book-plates of Evelyn and Pepys, and the portraits of those worthies and their wives.

Finance

LONDON AND NEW YORK.

A rather substantial decrease in the country's exports, as reported in recent weeks, has occasionally raised the question, Is the general movement one of exports decreasing progressively, from their previous high level, or not?

It would be rash to say that it is. The munitions factories are still at work on orders placed with them three to six months ago, and the occasional slackening of weekly shipments usually results from the fact that the bulk of vessels in the service have not yet returned from their previous voyages for new cargoes. Nevertheless, it remains to see whether orders for munitions will be heavily curtailed because of the rising cost of the metals used, or because of the increased output of Europe's own munitions factories. Supposing such a decrease, temporary or permanent, how would the foreign market, for instance, be affected?

In the case of sterling exchange, the answer would depend very largely on the policy of the British Treasury as to the sale of American securities owned in England. The Government now controls that movement very largely; it would perhaps be likely to suspend the selling if New York exchange on London were to steady itself because of a smaller "merchandise export balance."

When Mr. J. P. Morgan sailed for Europe last week, without previous announcement, Wall Street jumped to the conclusion that he had gone abroad to discuss with foreign bankers a new loan to Great Britain or France. M. Octave Homberg, the financial agent of the French Government, promptly stated that Mr. Morgan's trip had no connection with any loan to France, as that country still had ample funds in America. This statement led to the alternative inference that new borrowing by London in America was to be discussed, whether for the near or distant future.

From Wall Street's point of view, the significance of a loan on that basis would be that the mass of American securities "mobilized" under the British Treasury plan, the liquidation or threatened liquidation of which has long overhung the New York market, would be suspended. Securities pledged against a loan could not be sold. It was recalled that when the Anglo-French Commission was discussing the $500,000,000 loan last autumn, the suggestion of American bankers that the loan be secured by American collateral was rejected. That, however, was before Great Britain had accumulated the large holdings of American securities now controlled by the Government under the recent "mobilization." Is this a probable result?

Chancellor McKenna, in explaining the right reserved by the British Treasury to dispose of the deposited securities according to its judgment, said in Parliament last December:

> These securities might be used by institutions as collateral for borrowing in the United States, but if the lender knew that the borrower could not realize on his securities the borrower might find himself in great difficulty with the lender.

The reference to "institutions" in the Chancellor's speech apparently indicated that he contemplated the possibility of a borrowing operation carried on not directly by the British Government, but through private London banks. Perhaps even in war times the House of Commons would not have forgiven an intimation that the British Government itself expected to borrow on collateral.

In the speech referred to, Mr. McKenna said that American securities held in Great Britain were worth anywhere from $1,500,000,000 to $4,000,000,000. The exact sum is not so important as the fact that Mr. McKenna hoped that it would be sufficient "to meet our liabilities and to maintain exchange in the United States for the period of the war."

The sterling exchange market, which Mr. McKenna was anxious should be maintained, has provided little clue to the extent of foreign selling here, though the rise from around 4.71 in the middle of December to 4.76, where the rate has stood with small variations for more than two weeks, must be attributed largely to this selling. While sales of securities, however, have provided the driving power which carried the rate to 4.76, they do not explain the unusual steadiness with which the rate has kept at about that level. Apparently, this steadiness is due to the operations of the syndicate bankers, here and abroad, who have used the "supplementary credit" raised from the New York banks to maintain the rate, buying when exchange was falling, and selling when it went above 4.76.

No one but members of this syndicate, therefore, knows to what extent an actual balance has been maintained between our sales of commodities to Europe and Europe's sales of securities to us. M. Homberg's statement last Thursday disposed of any belief that may have existed that there was a pressing need of cash to settle for munitions, but it is to be presumed that the British officials are anxious that New York exchange on London shall not again be in danger of declining to the low level of last September, on the first day of which month demand sterling was quoted in New York at 4.50, as against par of 4.86⅝.

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A BUDGET OF LETTERS

COMMUNICATIONS IN WHICH NATION READERS SPEAK THEIR MIND ON MANY SUBJECTS

Some Topics that Have Aroused Keen Controversy

THE announcement made some time ago, that accumulated "Letters to the Editor" would from time to time, as occasion required it, be printed in special supplements of the *Nation*, has apparently had results embarrassing in a measure, but in far greater measure gratifying. The considerable increase in the volume of correspondence which reaches the *Nation* from its readers is, doubtless, attributable in part, not, we fancy, to the sentiment that

'Tis pleasant, sure, to see one's name in print,

but to the greater confidence of our correspondents that, with more space available, the opinions which they wish to ventilate will find expression. In the present supplement are grouped together the opinions of many minds on a wide variety of topics. Some of them, as, for instance, Marion E. Bowler's admirable presentation of the position of Romain Rolland in relation to the war, are in form and substance rather little essays than correspondence as it is commonly illustrated in newspapers and magazines, and for that reason, as well as with the idea of avoiding tiresome iteration, we have in this supplement omitted the customary formal allocution to the editor.

It is interesting, as well as exceedingly helpful, to note the articles or topics which have aroused greatest controversy among readers. Mr. Villard's paper on "The Pay of Professors" has called forth a number of carefully considered opinions on this subject. Our anonymous correspondent, "X," who, as long ago as December 9, undertook the cruel bombardment of the unfortified brains of freshmen, has apparently served as inspiration for similar atrocities in universities from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Seldom has a letter aroused such wide discussion, and, as readers of this supplement will see, the end is not yet. In the battle that was first joined by Professor Sherman and Mrs. Gerould over the great Wells vs. Bennett controversy new combatants have rallied to the support of the respective sides, and so far has the war-mania now gone that we have grave doubts as to whether the kindly offer of mediation that we printed last week will be entertained. If Professor Sherman's article stirred up strife, that of Mr. More on "Children's Books," in the *Nation* of December 2, seems to have met only with approval, and correspondents continue to add their suggestions to the list of volumes appropriate to youthful reading. Finally, Mrs. Franklin's recent suggestion that inhabitants of the United States should be called "Usonians" rather than "Americans" appears to have served as a challenge to the ingenuity of her readers. To the "Ustatians," "Usarians," and other obscure tribes of men who have leaped into sudden prominence of late we feel impelled to add our own modest suggestion of "Rosarians."

The War and the United States

MORAL NEUTRALITY.

Perhaps the mast ideal and complete neutrality is that of the scientist engaged in research, when the aim and object of his work is simply the attainment of truth. For him to manipulate the facts, or even to wish for one outcome rather than another in the experiment that is under way, is to threaten his whole enterprise with failure. Faith and hope he may have, but without neutrality he is nothing.

Not infrequently one finds it implied that a quasi-scientific attitude, as of an impartial observer, is the most seemly and becoming one for non-belligerents to take towards the great war. It is a gigantic experiment in which the relative merits of democracy and kultur are being brought to a final test; our part it is to await with reverence and patience the ultimate decision. We may lament the cost of the experiment; but it is on, and we must watch it as the scientist watches the crucial turn of the balance. The final outcome is bound to be the triumph and choice of the more efficient régime. It is a sort of "may-the-best-man-win" attitude. This transmogrification of pseudo-scientific reserve and mistaken sportsmanship, supported by the laconic but popularly inevitable consideration that nothing succeeds like success, is beginning to have a perceptible influence in many quarters, and calls for a reply. It raises the question not only whether such an attitude is morally right, but whether, in the long run, it is even possible.

To know that a certain compound is sucrose is, if we are simply in search of the truth, just as valuable and just as interesting as to know that another is sugar of lead. But if our aim were to determine which of the two should be given a patient to eat, an attitude of impartiality would be in the last degree absurd. To say that the war will decide the relative merits of kultur and democracy means nothing until we specify the particular respect in which it will show one to be superior to the other. Aristotle pointed out that it is senseless to ask, for instance, whether a knife is superior to a hammer. The one is superior for the purpose of cutting; the other is superior for the uses of mechanical percussion; that either one is superior just in general and at large is nonsense. Suppose that kultur should triumph in the mortal fury of arms; in what respect would that show kultur to be superior? The answer is obvious. It is asking whether freedom or servility, individual initiative or unanimous obedience is better *for the purposes of an army;* and to ask the question is to answer it. The "test" is much as if we were to introduce Woodrow Wilson and "Jess" Willard in a boxing match and then say, with a great

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show of openmindedness and impartiality, "Let the best man win!"

From a scientific standpoint, then, the present tremendous tragedy confirms only the idiotic tautology that militarism is better for military purposes. If that momentous revelation of truth is worth the price, then, perhaps, in so far, there is excuse for the impartial observer. But the world knows better. The crux of the whole matter lies in the great non-logical, moral issues that are at stake. The very fates are fighting in the trenches! A new structure of civilization is going to be built, and these ditches are the ground that is already broken for the purpose. When the fighter chooses to fight, his opponent has no alternative, and whether it is fair or not, the question—to what régime human life and peace and happiness shall in the future be entrusted—is going to be settled by the utterly irrelevant test of brute strength and competitive murder. "Der Tag" has come; the attack, so carefully planned for forty-five years, is made: the "Hour of Destiny" is striking. By a geographical accident we are, at least temporarily, safe. A certain priest and Levite once took advantage of a similar immunity. To assert that we have a moral right to pass by on the other side is almost insolent—when the fate of our common world hangs in the balance.

When moral issues are raised, when international law is ignored, when solemn treaties are regarded as scraps of paper, when not only non-combatants in general, but our own women and children in particular, are treacherously killed beneath the very folds of our flag, our right to be neutral is a mockery. No ocean can be wide enough to separate a great nation from its duty to mankind. Are we not in the position of the person who so nonchalantly asked, "Lord, who is my neighbor?" Geographical isolation is anything but a valid basis for moral indifference; and even if it were, the very idea of such isolation in the twentieth century is a snare and a delusion. The Lusitania was sunk three thousand miles from our shores, and the blood of mangled children was doubtless soon dispersed in the shifting currents of the deep; it is entirely possible, however, that in the eyes and estimation of the future "these little hands will the multitudinous seas incarnadine." It is one of the pretty ironies of fate that that with which the priest and Levite decided not to have anything to do is the one thing in connection with which they live in the memory of history; let us hope that it will not be said of us, two millenniums from now, that as a great Power we sat by with folded arms while Liberty in Europe was crucified in the name of Kultur.

BENJAMIN W. VAN RIPER.

State College, Pa.

PRO-GERMAN AMERICANS.

I should like to commend a criticism of pro-German expressions from native Americans presented in a recent *Nation*. There are events in the present war concerning which decent Americans should be ashamed even to be neutral in expressing themselves. It is explicable that German-Americans should utter opinions abhorrent to those trained in American traditions, but what shall be said of those who ought to know better? Yet that there has been a good deal of muddle-headedness and sheer wrong-headedness among the "natives" is manifest. It came out concerning the Lusitania and at other times. Thus, in my history classes I found apologists among the native Americans more cantankerous over the Lusitania occurrence than the Germans and the Finns. These views were presumably expressions of home opinions; and from the adults themselves occasionally came the same thing. "Everything about that affair was all right," remarked one of them to me. "Americans had no business being there," wrote another. To what extent German-Americans have the sympathy of native Americans is difficult to surmise, but we should not underestimate a melancholy aspect of current American sentiment.

L. A. C. NESE.

Houghton, Mich.

"NAGGING REMONSTRANCES."

Do you care to accept the reply of an unknown American to the letter published in your issue of December 2 by E. B. McCormick, "an unknown Englishman"? His objection to the American note protesting against alleged British violation of neutral rights is not answered by the degree of American or English hardships in this war or any previous war. Moreover, there is no comparison between the present alleged British interference with neutral trade and the blockade of the Confederate States during the American Civil War. We do not complain that England blockades the ports of her enemies, however much we suffer. We complain that she blockades neutral ports and takes ships bound with food to neutral countries upon the high seas. The degree of her necessities can not vindicate this breach of her obligations to friendly nations.

If there can be any excuse for war, it is only the excuse of self-defence. No other excuse is adequate to explain the taking of life. In 1830, 1856, and 1870 England, France, and Prussia pledged themselves to one another to respect the neutrality of Belgium, each acting from motives of self-defence. When those pledges were given, the great Powers of Europe had not written the Treaty of Berlin—they had not sought their peace by an adjustment of the balance of power at the expense of the weaker peoples of south-eastern Europe, whom they there bound to pay tribute to the Sultan, prince of an alien and barbaric people. The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente had not been made to secure the perpetuation of that crime. Germany did not know in 1870 that at a future time, when the Austrian Empire should be threatened by internal disruption and a pan-Slavic movement, the Lion and the Bear would hunt together. With ruin facing her ally, and two great Powers backing another in the prosecution of that ruin, Germany may well have felt that she must fight for her life. Her declaration of war against France, as France's declaration of war against Germany, destroyed *ipso facto* the pledges respecting Belgium, which depended upon peace between all the parties. It is inconsistent with war that it should be bound to its enemy by any agreement likely to thwart its success. Germany consulted her military necessity then, just as England is doing now. She offered to indemnify Belgium for any violation of her rights, just as we hope England has offered to indemnify Greece. Albert refused the German proposition, for which England and France may well afford to rebuild his stricken country.

The United States is invited to avenge this calamity to Belgium. Did England take it upon herself to avenge the atrocities in the Congo? Has England driven the Turk out of Europe and punished him for his massacre of the Armenians? No; England has gone to war, as other nations have gone to war, when her interests seem sufficiently endangered. Under similar circumstances the United States will go to war.

It has always been to the interest of England to fight against the most powerful nation in Europe, whichever it might be. So she has always been on the side of the weak against the strong. She derives much moral satisfaction from that fact, although, if there were any especial iniquity in strength, she would deserve to lose as often as she has won.

MURRAY T. QUIGG.

New York.

AMERICAN DETACHMENT.

A correspondent in a recent communication to the *Nation* called attention to the ignorance of college youth concerning the significant events of the present war. "X," in the issue of January 13, called attention to the inadequacy of the response of American relief measures to the acute need. Both attempt explanations. I do not think that the explanation given by either is true. I find among people generally a strange detachment and indifference; except in the case of those having foreign connections, there is an unimpingeable unwillingness to become interested in the war. I have put this strange fact to the cross question. I do not know whether it is due to a stunned horror of mind, or to a stupefied inability to reason about it, or whether it discovers a deeply rooted dissociation of the American mind with the problem of the war, a feeling that after all, so far as America is concerned and American ideas, it is utterly alien. Competent English criticism has noticed this. I believe that careful American thinking, first stunned and shocked with the horror of the war, has excised its vital touch and interest regarding the whole struggle as though it represented the nemesis of a national opinion and character with which it had no sympathy. I see no other explanation for the strange indifference of opinion. "A plague on both your houses."

If it be true that foreign contemporary opinion approximates the judgment of posterity, then, certainly, if the American attitude of mind is conscientious, and I think it is, the future will see this struggle drop out as a conditioning fact of real importance in the evolution of the conditions of human solidarity, and reveal its essentially unforceful and uncritical value in the development of an ecumenicity. Such a view is scarcely thinkable now, but history has shown similar reversals, and any other explanation of the curious phenomenon is not at hand. It is probable that what is left over from the wreckage will be of more importance than the ends sought or achieved by the fighting. At any rate, it emphasizes the terrible importance of America's not only staying out of the actual conflict, but of keeping her policy free from accepting any phases of the logic of it as cogent.

OSCAR WOODWARD ZEIGLER.

Baltimore.

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Some Aspects of the Struggle

"THE BUSINESS IN HAND" IN ITALY.

From the Italian War Zone: I confess that I open the newspapers from America with much trepidation; each successive week they seem to come from a further land and a stranger country. There are times, even, when they actually impress me as the record of the doings of another world; they speak of a hundred interests we in Europe have long ago laid aside—almost forgotten, and they picture the struggle here as something distinct from, and almost incidental to, the life of the world, to that part of the world-at-peace which to those who dwell therein seems the most real and the best of worlds!

I do not speak in harshness or in criticism; humbly rather, in the consciousness of my own spiritual and mental transformation from the time when my average American mind and soul watched this tragic stage from afar to these precious days when I am walking the streets of its scenes. It had seemed, in those other days, that this tragedy was something separable from the usual drama of life; that it could be played out, poorly or just well enough, with perfect technique or thrilled by immortal gestures, according to the art of generals, the finesse of diplomats, and the stagecraft of kings.

All this was true, and all this was real—but only in part!

From a distance, in the midst of that plenteousness and good-will which are the masks of the voluptuousness of peace, the deeper truth escapes the serenely lulled mind: the truth which has transformed my average American mind and soul into an average European mind and soul. That truth lies in this simple fact: that there is no essential difference between a truly great nation at war and a truly great nation at peace, that what there is of difference is one of degree, not of kind. This, at least, is the basic fact of the struggle in which Europe is to-day engaged; it is, in essence, the same daily conflict, the same constant battling of its peace-life, only that its mechanism is more impressively revealed, its desires more nakedly exposed, its ideals more tragically weighed; the same daily struggle, but with its resolves more heroically tested and its aspirations more superbly and more translucently delineated.

My former, average soul witnessed this struggle too much as the armed act of this or that army; behind the fighting line it imaged a world of hopes and fears, of men and women exalted or depressed, working, waiting, praying, swayed with the swaying of the battle line.

To-day it sees that what the generals are planning and the soldiers executing is but an incidental part of the struggle; it is—to put an heroic resolve in an unheroic garb—merely a phase of "the business in hand." For thus is the reality best described, grand in stature but inspiringly simple in its universality and stirringly homely in its all-embracing workings.

"The business in hand" is a huge, spontaneous, self-created, coöperative effort towards freedom, or, rather, to rescue freedom from the danger which threatens its spontaneous and popular character from an over-lordship of superior might. The appeal-universal which summons to the rescue is not the old political one; the spirit of the French Revolution wherever it has penetrated and taken root has made *that* almost a commonplace possession. The appeal to-day is an even more basic one; it is a more intimately social one; it is grounded in such universality of desire as to seem almost a material need. It is the deep-seated want for the *comfortable* freedom of being allowed to go on to be one's self. It is the individualism of nationality, the desire for the material ease and social pleasure of living in one's national family, to be with and of those who speak one's own language and think one's own thoughts and worship one's own gods. It is a simple, natural, almost primordial, human desire breaking forth from a heap of false assumptions and misinterpreted Christianity regarding the wish of mankind to be all alike and all brothers, with which we have suffocated it in the last two decades.

It is to reassert this freedom in its fulness and inalienability that the people of individualistic and social Europe are to-day fighting; and the struggle is more glorious than the battle for any other cause because it is waged and borne, with mind and hand, by so many, by all, by literally the whole people. Millions wear uniforms, but even more millions fight without the old-fashioned marks and implements of war. Never before were the causes of a conflict so clearly apprehensible and apprehended by the consciousness of every social class, but especially by that class whose wishes and needs have been heretofore seldom and indifferently considered; never were the demands of war and its manifold sacrifices so willingly accepted because so luminously understood as essential to the success of "the business in hand." Men by the thousands are suddenly called from home and factory, and marched away, often without again seeing their families for a moment's good-by. They are carried to the training camps or transported to the fighting line; they are put at the hardest and riskiest of labor or at the humblest and most menial of tasks without distinction, with no favors, with only one, definite, clear-cut, unwavering test applied to each and all: Where can this one body and soul be most useful to "the business in hand"?

Yet, not a murmur, no, not the whisper of a murmur; the very most, and this seldom, a plea for a short day's grace, though the going may mean unto death. Not a plaint from the women left suddenly alone in an isolation which would be terrible were it not the portion of the majority. Not a plaint; perhaps a tear as a lonely woman, standing on a bridge spanning the tracks, watches a train speed away towards the horizon of fate.

"It must be done. It must be done." You hear it on every lip, you read it in every eye; millions and millions of hands work swiftly and deftly in the thought of it, in home and factory, in school and office. "The business in hand" requires the death of tens of thousands, the maiming and the anguish of tens of millions; it calls for all the energy which every man, woman, or child can give, and makes sacrifice the most democratic of all qualities. No man can stand aside; no man does. It is the new courage; the courage of all—resplendent because of its spontaneity—clear-eyed, universal. "It must be done!" A hundred years hence the homely phrase which to-day still smacks of that industrial slavery which colors its diction, will thrill the world as the earlier cry of one brave man speaking for a lesser but inspiring freedom: "Give me liberty, or give me death!"

You in America can sympathize and take sides in calmness and cool judgment; you can watch the campaign from every angle as it is developed by the General Staffs and wax strong and wise in their mistakes. You can lend this nation and that limitless gold, or furnish to this or that army an inexhaustible supply of munitions. And you can vigorously protest against the infractions of justice and fair play as they affect you or the frail structure of international law.

All this you can do, and have done; and still you seem to be utterly unaware of what moves and resolves the millions of souls with whom, in indirect ways, you strive to act.

All this you might have left undone, and still, through a deeper and less formal sympathy, have become spiritual participants in a great cause whose true glory seems hopelessly invisible to your eyes. Else you would not so smugly, so ignobly, talk of peace!

You tell us it is the principle that counts; and so it is. But it is action which humanizes it and blood which gives it holiness. Every great principle of freedom to which your own country and mine are immortally anchored was neither "argued" into being nor "settled" by agreement; the test of the universal willingness to die for it was what added to its dignity the throb of creative life.

GINO C. SPERANZA.

LORD DERBY.

A great and prolonged national crisis almost invariably produces at least one commanding figure; England has been looking for this figure during the present war, but it had not appeared until Lord Derby came to the rescue of a divided Cabinet and undertook to organize an efficient system of voluntary recruitment.

At this moment Lord Derby, though not a member of the Cabinet, is beyond question the most commanding personage in English public life, and he has suddenly reached this place because he possesses the combination of qualities which are needed in great emergencies. He is at once bold and discreet, he understands the English character, and the people understand him. He belongs to the class which contained the late Duke of Devonshire, and in the era of the great Reform bill Lord Althorp, Lord Grey, and men with no axes to grind, absolutely unselfish, to whom the agreeable pastimes so easily within the reach of wealthy peers are more attractive than public duties, but who, when the occasion calls, have always been ready to serve their country. Though from time to time brought into the political arena, a man like Lord Derby is not a politician, and when he undertakes political work it is not to gratify personal ambition, but to be useful to his generation. Lord Derby's sagacity is exemplified by the fact that, though an adherent in theory to compulsory military service, he perceived that it was preferable to endeavor to make the existing voluntary system a success rather than to change it at this critical juncture for one which would, under different circumstances, have been more capable of producing new armies. His boldness was shown not only in undertaking an abnormal and very delicate task but in the straightforwardness and the clarity of his appeal to his countrymen. At this moment the end of the enlistment has come, and if, as seems probable, Lord Derby has been successful in his work, it will place him far above any of his contemporaries in

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the estimation of Great Britain. It will stamp him as the person most fitted to be chief of a War Administration, since he is the only man in English public life to-day who unites in himself the qualities needed in the chief civil leader at such a time as this—fearlessness and prudence, industry and tact, a high social position—he is the seventeenth of the Earls of Derby—and an unassuming nature, a knowledge of his countrymen, and a clear perception of vital objectives.

E. S. ROSCOE.

Princeton, N. J.

"FRIENDS" IN DEED.

The enclosed summary of half a dozen pamphlet reports on the work of the English Society of Friends' War Victims' Relief Committee may interest some of your readers. I do not remember seeing any account of it. These reports were sent to me by Henry Cope, of Philadelphia, who has gone to London to help in this work.

F. G. ROSENGARTEN.

Philadelphia.

Soon after the outbreak of the war, the English Society of Friends in London organized a War Victims' Relief Committee, with offices at the headquarters of the English "Friends," Devonshire House, Bishopsgate, London. It has worked away with characteristic modest usefulness, and now prints an account of its varied activities, in a series of reports on its relief work in the devastated Department of the Marne and the Meuse, including medical work, feeding, clothing, and housing. Five groups are working together in the areas under control of the French army. The expedition numbered originally thirty-two, half of whom were doctors and nurses; later increased to seventy workers, including women skilled in relief and men qualified to help, especially in the construction of shelters for the homeless. Of these, one has organized a maternity hospital, serving a whole department, and caring for several thousand refugees. Another organized workshops, in which wooden shelters are made and carried to neighboring villages, almost destroyed by bombardment and fire. A third party is rebuilding little hamlets; and others make similar provision for other desolated places. Clothes and materials for work to supply the needs of the sufferers are collected in London and forwarded to the workers in the field, through ten ravaged departments. All of this work is carried on with the grateful coöperation of local authorities, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, and supplements the aid given by the French Government to homeless refugees.

Another group includes an architect, a doctor, a trained nurse, an expert in agricultural chemistry, an engineer and a skilled mechanic, a bricklayer, a carpenter, builders, furniture makers, chauffeurs, and women able to help as nurses. Seeds and manure and agricultural implements were distributed, sewing-machines and other "tools" of the trades most needed were given to artisans; old and destroyed houses rebuilt, clothes distributed, workshops fitted up, and medical and surgical relief and nursing supplied for many helpless people in their great need.

Many of the local doctors had been mobilized, and only some of the older practitioners and the military doctors with troops billeted in the district or passing through were available. Much was done by the nurses of these English "Friends," who were heartily welcomed by the French authorities and Red Cross. Twenty-four villages in one district were cared for, with hospital, dispensary, nurses for outdoor patients, kindergarten, playgrounds for the children, and all this with the approval and encouragement of the local authorities.

At Châlons the English "Friends" combined the work of doctor, nurse, and relief. They built huts for the houseless, furnished them, gave food and clothing, found or made work, distributed garden seeds and tools, and in many ways worked with Government and local agencies to alleviate the distress described in their reports. Effective organization and administration secure order, method, and economy in the distribution of food and clothing and in the work of obtaining sites and of building and furnishing huts to house and shelter the poor sufferers by the war as it swept through the country.

Provision has been made for collecting rent from those who have any resources, either in their own savings or earnings, or in help from the Government, but in many cases there is absolute poverty, often of those who before the war were prosperous, independent, and self-supporting. Maps, schedules, and specimen sheets of relief given, and tables showing the details of each district, and tables recording each case and the method of help, add to the clear understanding of the task undertaken by these "Friends," in need and in deed, and of the result of their work. Donations and subscriptions can be sent to the treasurer, Isaac Sharp, Devonshire House, 131, Bishopsgate St., London, England. The list of relief workers shows that men and women have shared in the work, each taking a month or more. There have been half a dozen women nurses, who also helped with relief, and Marta Fry (name of good omen) was head of the department of relief. "Friends" from America, notably from good old Quaker Philadelphia, have joined in this labor of love, with a personal share in its trying duties in the field, and by contributions and donations to help continue this characteristic Quaker way of relieving the distress that followed in the wake of war in France.

Sidelights on "Kultur"

A GERMAN WARNING.

A hundred years ago there lived the German theologian, Schleiermacher, whose name was held in the highest esteem in his own time and country, and now seems destined to renewed reverence among religious thinkers of every land, as may be seen by the studies and translations of his works which are appearing from time to time. In one of these, a translation of his "Speeches on Religion," I found certain passages of special interest in connection with the German mental attitude during the present war.

The first is an estimate of the man by a German historian, whose name has recently become familiar to English-speaking ears: "Treitschke, the historian of Germany in the nineteenth century, who ascribes to Schleiermacher a place second to none in awaking the patriotism of his native land for the great struggle with Napoleon, says: 'He became the renovator of our theology, the greatest of all our theologians since the Reformation, and even yet no German theologian arrives at inward liberty who has not settled accounts with Schleiermacher's ideas.'"

The second passage is from the first speech. "What does religion more abhor than the unbridled arrogance with which the rulers of the people bid defiance to the eternal laws of the world? What does it inculcate more strongly than that discreet and lowly moderation of which aught, even the slightest feeling, does not seem to be suggested to them? What is more sacred to it than that lofty Nemesis, of whose most terrible dealings they, in the intoxication of infatuation, have no understanding?"

This is written concerning the French, but may not be without application in this generation to another nation.

That Treitschke should have so praised the author of these words is somewhat curious, as he can hardly have failed to be familiar with them. Possibly their wider application did not occur to him. THEODORE D. BACON.

Salem, Mass.

THE MEDIÆVALIST TO-DAY.

It is a chastening reflection that there is no one in the world to-day more completely at home than the erstwhile lonely mediævalist. The classicist may recall, as recent writers in the *Nation* have done, Athenian ultimatums, or adapt to the fate of the Belgians the piercing elegies of Simonides; the modernist may muse on Napoleonic strategy; but, above all, it is the mediævalist who finds, according to the measure of his spirit, the most numerous analogies, painful, humorous, picturesque, touching, between the present and the past. The margin of difference, the balance of horror, has grown terribly small.

It does not make much difference to the mediævalist whether he reads the current reports of atrocities or ancient chronicles; they are sufficiently similar to make him need good nerves for either. He can grow ironic over the indignant or proud acclaim given to Krupp guns or gas attacks as the last word in scientific deadliness, when he ponders the same reaction by foe or friend to the great catapults of the twelfth century, or to the Greek fire which the mediæval Christian flung piously over his Saracen foe. He laughs a bit at war-worn jests; when he reads of the endearing names of the French soldiers for their seventy-fives, or the derisive "Ypres Express" with which for a time the English Tommy greeted a screeching German shell, he remembers the jocular names the Crusaders had also for their engines of war. With a certain discouragement he hears the nations invoking their God as a marauding feudal baron did his patron saint.

A little while ago and nothing seemed more remote from the Middle Ages than contemporary popular art and story, unless it was the very spirit itself of the Age of Reason and Science and Efficiency. While the world is learning to expiate the last, popular taste follows curiously the images and moods of the older days. The terse, lively, ultra-modern cartoonist is now obsessed by the skeleton figure of Death, who stalks through crowded cities and stricken fields, the unseen comrade of Everyman from Emperor to peasant. He leads again the *Danse Macabre*, the

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Todtentanz, with which the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries were only too familiar. He has become anew as real a dramatic character as he was in a mediæval morality. The modern story-teller, awed by inexplicable tragedy, finds more and more the way of escape from intolerable fact in the favorite mediæval device of a vision. Skepticism and modern irreligiousness to the contrary, typically religious legends are gaining currency for which only the poignant faith of the Middle Ages can offer parallels. Modern cameras have caught wonderingly scene after scene of desolated churches, where a sacred image has somehow escaped destruction. Stories of miraculous preservations, of men as of saints, are going softly from lip to lip—new *contes dévots*. In England the tale of an English soldier at the battle of Mons who murmured an ancient prayer, and saw presently, in shining panoply, Saint George and his angel hosts hurtling weapons on the foe, has been vainly avowed by its author to be of purely fictitious character. Those who heard the story loved it, and will no more let it die than did the worthy folk for whom ages ago the minstrels told in half-a-dozen romances an exactly similar episode.

The mediævalist, who frankly abhors the chilly modern talk of monetary "compensation" for blood and life, and who knows the futility of "rectified" frontiers, ponders heavily within himself whether all this reversion to the past will bear any of its sweeter fruits. Will the lost Armenians find a singer as did the Burgundians centuries after they had perished before Attila the Great First Hun? Germany has already a tribal chant from which Time may again in its large fashion sift the hate to leave a new epic of heroism. From the mountain battles of Servia what new Rolands and Olivers will come, what new *chansons de geste* from the fields of France?

LAURA A. HIBBARD.

South Hadley, Mass.

A SPANISH PROPHET.

A recent study of the work of Gabriel García y Tassara, Minister of Spain to the United States from 1858 to 1867, and master of political satire among modern Spanish poets, has revealed one more prophet of remarkably clear vision whose ideas have found their *raison d'être* in the events of 1914-1915.

Tassara's pessimistic attitude was first inspired by the French revolution of 1848 when, with the establishment of the Second Republic under Louis Napoleon, the democratic classes seemed to him to have definitely assumed leadership in France and, through French influence, in Latin Europe. The Franco-Prussian war of 1870 filled him again with the gloomiest forebodings for the fate of western Europe. Tassara saw in these two events unmistakable signs of an approaching crisis. He, moreover, feared that democracy was the poorest of governments to cope with it, especially democracy among nations now "sterile" with age.

In 1851, Tassara's *Un Diablo Más* prophetically depicted "frightened Europe listening for the sound of the swift gallop of a *new Attila* . . . whose bristling locks, whose iron armor still dripped with the blood of the conquered Roman world."

All doubt as to whom Tassara referred to by "el nuevo Atila" is dispelled by a new section of the poems which appeared in 1871, containing these lines: "What could I add more if the prophecy has been fulfilled, if Attila has come, if France has died, if, after France, *Europe will expire?* . . . This is the hour by God and man accursed when, the fatal time fulfilled, the nations fall in pieces like a mass of rotten flesh."

Had it not been for the stand of the French in the Battle of the Marne, these words, prefixed as they are by "Here lies the corpse of Europe," might well have served, as they were intended, for the epitaph of Latin Europe.

GEORGE S. BARNUM.

University of Minnesota.

THE ORNAMENT OF CIVILIZATION.

The control of Germany over Turkish policy is so complete that she rather than Turkey must be held chiefly responsible for the Armenian horrors; and she has not the excuse of religious fanaticism, which in the case of the latter may be regarded as an extenuating circumstance.

Unimpeachable testimony to Germany's attitude is to be found in the fact that she has for a year endeavored to instigate a "holy war." Our forefathers, who have experience of Indian massacres, would know what this means. It means, if successful, that every Christian population in Moslem lands will be exposed to the tortures and massacres that have devastated the whole of Armenia.

Any great nation, with the possible exception of China, if regarded as a corporate unity, a super-organism, a great beast, leviathan, or behemoth, must be regarded as a beast of prey. But there are degrees of ferocity among them. In the past year Germany has not only broken all her solemn agreements, but has in various lines broken all the historical records, both on the land and on the sea. She can now read her title clear to be acclaimed the noblest and fairest ornament of Christian civilization, the most exquisite blossom of twentieth-century enlightenment, *splendor urbis et orbis in sæcula sæculorum.*

W. C. ROSE.

Ashland, Mass.

KULTUR IN ARCHITECTURE.

During the past eighteen months we have had much discussion of German culture. The effect of this culture upon the architecture of modern Germany is a subject for interesting study. There are, it is true, two schools of art in Germany, the academic and the modern. The academic, which still clings to the precious heritage of the past, is a school formed of men who draw their inspiration from the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries and who still speak the same beautiful language of the art of Nuremburg and Rottenburg, but whose influence unfortunately is negligible. I speak of such men as Ludwig, Hoffmann, Bauning, Cambell, Buhring, and of such exquisite examples as Alfred Messel's Museum of Darmstadt.

It is, however, the modern school that expresses the real culture of Germany. Animated by the restless impulse that has moved Germany in her greed for world power, such men as Bruno Schmidtz and Kauffman have succeeded, by working with astonishing and even audacious originality, in giving the nation a new style of architecture which seems to have been accepted as the national expression. The great wave of unrest which has swept over Germany has so engulfed the nation that a complete upheaval in art has taken place; the very foundations of the past have been erased, and we find a strange new art, with touches of the mysticism of the East and possessing much daring cleverness, imagination, and a strong artistic quality. In it there is unquestionably the evidence of power and of a great restless vital force; indeed, it is the expression of an arrogant, conceited people whose ideals are foreign to either the Latin or Anglo-Saxon race. But is it art with that eternal quality that has marked the great epochs of the past? Do we find in modern German architecture that spirit of truth, that quiet, natural expression of an enduring power which is the unconscious possession of true greatness? These attributes are felt among the columns of Karnak, upon the Acropolis, and in the Forum; but what is felt before such gigantic monstrosities as the Bismarck or the Leipzig monument, whose sole claim upon us is their overpowering bulk? Is not modern German architecture a forced and false art, lacking in that eternal quality? Is it not an art flushed with success within its own arena and smarting from its cold rejection by all people of higher culture and finer tastes?

GUY STUDY.

St. Louis.

Preparedness

A FALLACY OF PREPAREDNESS.

Of all the endless fallacies illuminating the logic of the militarists, none is more entertaining than that the European nations will at the end of this war be much stronger than they were at the beginning. When the Civil War ended, we had a million trained soldiers. Napoleon III saw that it would not be wise to place his brother on the throne of Mexico. England decided that she would rather lose $15,000,000 than lose Canada. Hence, the militarists conclude, every country is stronger after than before a war. Obviously, this conclusion applies only to countries which normally are not prepared for war. If, however, a country is already thoroughly prepared for war, as all the European nations except England were, then a long war greatly weakens a country. As a result of this war, all the European nations, except England and possibly Russia, will be much weaker than before the war began. Therefore, we need not increase our armaments because of the "increased" military strength of the European nations.

LOCKWOOD MYRICK, JR.

Northampton, Mass.

AN AMERICAN BERNHARDI.

The appeal for more "preparedness" amounts, to the individual voter, to this: Will you agree to give your money, to give your life, to march, if the Government requires, and take the life of other men guilty, individually, of no more wrong than that they have, in a similar way, agreed to march when their Government requires?

There can be little doubt that most Americans would agree to these things if they could be assured that their Government would use such terrible power with prudence and scrupulous justice. The whole matter is

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there. How much preparedness? What kind? At what cost? Those things the military authorities can determine for us when we make the larger determination.

The thoughtful voter, then, it seems to me, is not considering those details, but rather: What assurance have we that the Government will be prudent and scrupulously just, when armed as it asks? No fixed assurance, of course, is possible. Administrations change, and we cannot predict whether they will be scrupulous in using their undoubted power, in any acute conflict of international interests, to precipitate war. Public opinion, in a large way, will be the permanent force controlling them. How reassuring, then, are the voices now raised to influence public opinion?

One should not be overlooked, that of Brig.-Gen. H. M. Chittenden, in the January *Atlantic*. Here is the gist of his article, "Manifest Destiny in America":

A powerful state must, as a matter of "high responsibility courageously assumed and of imperative duty faithfully performed," purchase, or if sale is refused or if the price demanded appear to the purchaser exorbitant, then by force acquire and develop territory whenever "the welfare of [such] remote region and the interests of civilization therein, as well as the natural development of their own country," seem (to the powerful nation, be it noted) to require it. In such cases the owner's right becomes merely technical and subordinate to a higher right. "Through a false pride nations rarely admit such an obligation, and generally consider it more honorable to cede territory as a result of defeat in war than to bargain it away by peaceful negotiations."

Three cases are discussed. Permanent Mexican connection would have been an incalculable misfortune to the commercial and industrial development of the region ceded after the Mexican War and a misfortune of the first magnitude to the United States, "preventing as it would the full rounding out of its continental territory; depriving it of that wonderful Pacific port which . . . played so great a part in our national development." Mexico's refusal to sell "placed her in the attitude of blocking the pathway to progress for sentimental considerations only." (One wonders how far the desire to "round out a continental territory" is a sentimental consideration. Does the inclusion of a wonderful port—Antwerp, for example—make it practical?) "As for justice, in a broad humanitarian sense, it was Mexico that failed in its exercise. The action of the United States was prompted not by lust of territory, but by the fulfilment of a duty to civilization; that of Mexico by lust of territory alone." The action of the United States was "completely justified by its results," so that "surely it seems as if the hand of Providence must have been in the work." (Support by a quotation from the Prince of Peace is here omitted as not essential to the argument.)

In the matter of Panama "the right to establish a canal . . . was clearly a world right, with which no state, by virtue of technical sovereignty of the soil, had any moral right to interfere. . . . The accidents of fortune had placed the site of the canal route under the sovereignty of Colombia. . . . Every consideration of justice and fairness should have prompted her to facilitate the work. . . . She had no right to consider her consent as such aid, for she had no moral right to withhold such consent. . . . From any possible standpoint of equity and justice, the cash contribution, if there were to be any, should have been *from* Colombia." Her "*determination to extort a larger payment*" our Government regarded "as no better than that of an attempted hold-up to which no nation could in honor submit. . . . The voice of criticism—nay, even calumny—is heard. . . . But what matters it? The work itself is a sufficient answer, and the ships which are passing to and fro are a silent and everlasting vindication."

The third case is of a valley which we should buy, or, if Mexico refuses to sell, presumably take, for irrigation purposes in the Southwest.

Well, does the American citizen, in order to fulfil such "manifest destiny," wish to march against men of another nation to whom that destiny may not appear so manifest? If honored and responsible public servants can express such convictions here in our republic which has supposed that only Prussianized Germany could produce a Bernhardi, can it seem surprising that to thousands of citizens Mr. Bryan seems, as compared with Mr. Roosevelt, the less preposterous alternative?

H. L. Seaver.

Boston, Mass.

The Position of Romain Rolland

At a time when, as now, feeling runs high, it is perhaps an ungrateful task to ask a hearing for one who is trying to protect his best self and that of his country against the fevered and narrow patriotism to which it is so easy to succumb in time of war. It is, however, a matter of deep satisfaction for me to be allowed to perform this service for a man whose writings so many in this country have responded to as to the best expression of ideals which we all cherish.

Some bitter attacks on the attitude in this war of Romain Rolland which have appeared in American papers (Alvan Sanborn in the Boston *Transcript*) have led those who have read them to wonder how the author of a book as patriotic in the best sense of the word as "Jean-Christophe" could fail in his support of his country at a crisis like the present one. As the articles on which the attack was based were not available, not only here, but in France itself, where the newspapers would not give them place, it was not possible to answer, further than by saying that in giving his time to the work of interchanging and relieving prisoners he was at least personally serving his country as well as though he were in the trenches (a form of duty from which both his age and his health exempted him with honor). Now, however, these articles have appeared in book form,* and in trying to give in a few pages a just idea of sentiments which by their high-minded sincerity seem to me to deserve to be read word for word, I feel that I am doing what every admirer of Romain Rolland will thank me for, since it will show that in the midst of the European turmoil the man who in times of peace dared show Europe her weakness is continuing steadfastly to uphold the same ideals—ideals to which we all subscribed before emotion had taken the place of reason and justice in us. The hope for Europe in the future is that more men may have the courage of Romain Rolland.

In "Jean-Christophe," it will be remembered, he prophesied the conflagration which is now raging ("La Nouvelle Journée," Vol. 10, page 247): "The fire which was smouldering in the forest of Europe was beginning to burst into flames. In vain did they try to put it out in one place: it broke out in another: with gusts of smoke and a shower of sparks it swept from one point to another, setting fire to the dry brushwood. . . . All Europe, Europe that only yesterday was skeptical and apathetic, like a dead wood, was swept by the flames. All men were possessed by the desire for battle. War was ever on the point of breaking out. . . . The world felt that it was at the mercy of an accident that might let loose the dogs of war. The world lay in wait . . . and idealogues, sheltered beneath the massive shadow of the cyclops, Proudhon, hymned in war man's fairest title of nobility." Then in his prophetic vision piercing beyond the war itself, he saw peace reëstablished, and the two races mutually completing each other (Vol. 10, page 253): "Here are our hands. In spite of lies and hatred we will not be parted. We have need of you; you have need of us, to build the greatness of our spirits and our people. We are the two wings of the west. If one be broken, there is an end of flight! Let the war come! It will not break the clasp of our hands or the flight of our genius in brotherhood" (Eng. trans., Vol. 3, page 473). It is the ideal we all held with him then, is it not, and the one we still see glimpses of, so in harmony with the hopes of the constantly increasing number who looked forward to a time when nations should live peaceably together, like the members of a well-regulated family, each pursuing its own ends and developing for the profit of all its special opportunities and its special genius? It is the ideal we all express in our saner moments, when we discuss the readjustments that will be necessary at the end of this world war. And yet, to have given expression to it publicly, in war times, Romain Rolland, because he is a Frenchman, is injured by his own press and described by an American in ours as "a man without a country," "the moral inferior of the humblest 'poilu,'" "a myope perched on a peak" who "enjoys the distinction of being practically the only Frenchman of repute who is certain ultimately to be right, since he has refrained from espousing any cause" (Alvan Sanborn in the Boston *Transcript*). Not espoused any cause, indeed! One has but to read what he says to see how untrue such an accusation is. One can understand, even while deploring it, that a nation at war might not be in a mood to welcome thoughts of universal brotherhood, and might deal unfairly with one of its own who dared to express them; but cannot we, Americans, who have no such excuse for blindness, lift our voice to uphold a man who against such odds is trying to hold the light of the spirit high enough for it to be seen by those in the thick of the fight?

The attack on Rolland has been based on four articles, all of which appeared in the *Journal de Genève*. They are: "Lettre à Hauptmann," "Au-dessus de la Mêlée," "De

**Au-Dessus de la Mêlée.* Paris: Paul Ollendorff.

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Deux Maux le Moindre," "Inter Arma Caritas." The first, the Letter to Hauptmann, most of us have read, and we know how, after the news of the destruction of Louvain by the German army, Rolland called upon Hauptmann, as the spokesman of the German élite, to protest against such a deed and to disavow it. We also know that instead of a disavowal from the German people and their moral leaders there was a general chorus of approval and justification, and that in the fever of their over-stimulated patriotism they rejected the opportunity the world gave them of repudiating the acts which we all hoped could be blamed only upon a few.

"Au-dessus de la Mêlée" is first an apostrophe to the young soldier, of whatever nationality he may be, who in giving his life as a rampart for his country, under the belief that it is fighting for existence, is also making "a complete gift of self to eternal ideas," since this war is more than a war of retaliation as generally understood, it is a war by which "faith is putting to rout the egoisms of the mind and the senses" (page 22). But then, having shown his sympathy with the soldier and his cause, Rolland goes on to call upon those who are not at the front: the elders, the moral leaders of the soldier. He is doing his duty; are they? It is generally accepted that the people and the élite of the nations did not want the war. What, then, did they do to prevent it, and what are they doing now to make it less terrible? Instead of working to extinguish the fire, they are stirring it; and in so doing they are revealing the weakness of our two moral powers: Christianity and Socialism. Nay, more, they are betraying their country in its greatest need, for, while crime must be stopped (Rolland agrees to that), it is not consonant with a great people to take vengeance; it has done enough if it has reestablished right. The love of country which leads men to give their "hearts and bodies" does not and should not carry with it hatred of other countries. Duty, therefore, requires of those who claim intellectual and moral leadership to protect the spirit, over which nothing has any right, since "the spirit is light" and to "lift the thought of Europe above the tempest and disperse the clouds that try to obscure it."

In "De Deux Maux le Moindre" Rolland takes up the question of Russian and Prussian imperialism, in order to defend his country and its allies from the blame some have attached to them for linking their fortunes with those of a despotic Government like Russia, by showing that, though both are menacing to the peace of Europe, the Russian is greatly to be preferred because there is more hope for the future in it; and he bases this hope largely on the fact that "the intellectual world in Russia would never have been capable of justifying and approving the barbarous actions of its Government as the German intellectuals do to-day," witness Tolstoi, Dostoievsky (quotation from a letter Rolland uses).

"Inter Arma Caritas" is another appeal for what the author holds so close to his heart, an effort on the part of the French leaders (at least of those who write), to use their pens to quell hatred of their enemy, and, while succoring the fallen and wounded, to hold up the fine device: Inter Arma Caritas. He even goes further, showing ways of helping. It is, indeed, through his own experience of the response met with when aid is asked that his belief in the underlying brotherhood of all nations has been strengthened, and that he has found the courage to proclaim it now. Those most needed, he says, in order that this war may not leave behind it a heritage of rancor almost worse than the war itself, are doctors of the soul, who will heal the wounds made by hatred and vengeance as those of the body heal the wounds of the flesh.

The reading of these and some other articles of Romain Rolland, thrilled me as no deed of heroism on the battlefield, even, has done. For through them he seemed to reassert himself in my mind as the representative of the finest side of the France we all love and the guardian in time of stress of her idealism, of the spirit that has always made her the standard bearer of humanity. What, I said to myself, are the ideas that stand out in these articles, and is there anything in them which merits the attacks they have called forth? This is the list of those ideas as I jotted them down:

(1.) A determination, which forms the mainspring of all the rest, that no matter what happens, no matter how passionately he might proclaim the justice of his country's cause, he would not soil his spirit with hatred of her enemies.

(2.) A desire, before judging, to separate the German Government from the people, whose national docility leads them to believe and act as their Government bids.

(3.) Resentment against the intellectual leaders for not raising their voices in protest against the crimes of the Government.

(4.) A burning desire, not only to keep his own spirit free, but to see France rise above the hatred so easily engendered, and to see her leaders make it their solemn duty so to guide her that in protecting her material existence she may not lose her spiritual.

So, if Germany commits crimes against humanity by valuing (as she says she does) the life of a German soldier more than the life of the treasures of the ages, he expects that France will constitute herself their defender. "Just as above the falling armies hovers the vision of their love, their fatherland, for which they are laying down their lives, so above these passing lives passes the sacred ark of art and of the thought of the centuries. France, he feels, has a great moral triumph in this war, and must not lose it." "I want France to be loved, I want her to be victorious, not only through force, not only through being in the right (that, even, would be too hard), but by the superiority of her great, generous heart. I want her to be strong enough to fight without hatred, and even in those she is forced to strike down to see misled brothers who must be pitied after they have been rendered incapable of doing harm." "For, after all, those things which unite men spring from deeper roots of our being than those things which separate us," and it is the solemn duty of those who pretend to lead to see that "Our Lady of Misery (Notre Dame la Douleur) opens the eyes of these people blinded by pride, and shows them that they are all only troops of human beings, equal before suffering, and with enough to do in combating it together, without adding to it." The message of Romain Rolland, true son of France if ever there was one, is, in his own words again, that "some day all must join hands again, you [French] and you, neighbors across the Rhine, even if only to come to some agreement for the carrying on of your affairs; you must resume possible and human relations; then see to it that you don't make them impossible! Do not burn all the bridges, since you must eventually cross the river. Do not destroy the future. A clean wound heals, but do not poison it. Let us defend ourselves against hatred. If in time of peace we need to prepare for war . . . we need also in time of war to prepare for peace. It is a task which does not seem to me unworthy of those among us who are outside the rush of battle, and who through their intellectual life, have more extended ties with the universe—that little lay church which, better than the other to-day, is guarding its faith in the unity of human thought and its belief that all men are sons of the same Father" ("Lettre à ceux qui m'accusent," page 82).

Is it a message which deserves abuse and discredit, or is it one which enlists our admiration and loyal support? Romain Rolland, at least, is willing to leave his justification to the future.

MARION E. BOWLER.

Cambridge, Mass.

The Pay of Professors

EFFICIENCY TESTS FOR PROFESSORS.

When Mr. Villard writes about college professors he speaks from fulness of knowledge and of sympathy. His recent letter on the low pay of professors (*Nation*, January 13) deals with a college problem coming more and more within the limelight of public discussion. But Mr. Villard does not discuss—perhaps it is unnecessary for his particular aspect of the theme that he should undertake to—the insuperable obstacles that beset the problem of realizing adequate pay in college grades. His own arguments deal with the intangible and abstract, as to what constitutes a professor's usefulness on which to base a clear claim for more liberal recognition on the pay-roll. But the difficulties in the way are very tangible and palpable, and are likely to remain so as far as can be foreseen under present conditions.

These difficulties spring from the fact that, in America at least, a professor's qualifications have never been standardized, nor the amount and kind of duties to be expected of him. No uniform test is applied to the measure of his usefulness, and even in institutions of the foremost rank great diversity is to be noted in the estimate given to the factors that go to make up the sum total of his activities. The same pay-roll may list professors working full time, with scrupulous attention to details of utility that professors are so prone to neglect, and others enjoying virtual sinecures, with only nominal duties, so as to provide them abundant leisure vaguely assumed to be dedicated to the advancement of knowledge through original research. In short, a maximum of departmental freedom is sought for with a minimum of responsibility in the use of it.

In this respect the schools are much better off, because relative uniformity is obtaining more and more among them as to what is expected of a teacher and the status to be given him. He has become an indispensable cog-wheel in an elaborate administrative gearing, and his individual action in its working forces can be readily seen and noted down.

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He cannot evade observation, as the college professor seeks to, because the administrative mechanism of which he is an integral part works in the open as a cohesive unit. By virtue of this fact he occupies a much stronger position before the public and has a leverage for making his claims felt and acknowledged on the basis of tangible services actually performed.

On the other hand, the college is at a striking disadvantage, which grows with the size and the diversity of its departments and reflects itself in the ill-defined but distinctly unsympathetic attitude of the public towards the professor as a social entity more ornamental than useful. The man on the street—the average man who makes the money and pays the school taxes—has little doubt that the school-teacher earns his salary, but he is not so sure that the college professor does earn it. But as he respects learning in the abstract he prefers to avoid ungracious controversy on the point, where the cant phraseology of "higher education" can easily intimidate him without convincing him. Benefactors are willing to put their money in new buildings and physical equipment because they are sure of getting their money's worth in something that can be seen and measured in terms of common exchange. But they are not so sure of this if they found a chair of learning to provide a comfortable living for a learned Brahmin who may come to look upon it as a soft thing rather than as a claim for full value in return. In short, there lurks in the mind of the would-be benefactor a suspicion that the beneficiaries of his bounty to higher education may abuse their leisured privileges and have too easy a time, with no chips from their workshops to offer in return. Even university authorities themselves prefer—as Mr. Villard points out in the case of Brown University—to divert an endowment from its own avowed purpose of raising the pay-roll and to establish new departments instead. The latter show off nicely in the catalogue and the annual reports, but a raise in salary looks like so much money sunk without visible return. What private benefactor or taxpayer cares to throw his money into a well against a mighty uncertain return?

The root of the difficulty is the disesteem set upon teaching as a legitimate part of the university's mission—not avowed in so many terms, to be sure, but working as a silent force everywhere and strongest intrenched in the traditions of those institutions of highest rank and prestige which set the academic style for the others. Learned young doctors, exulting in their hard-won spurs of narrow technicalities, have come to disdain elementary or intermediate teaching and aspire to nothing better than to devote their life-work to the cryptic lore in which they have been saturated and spoiled for useful activities. Professors of all ranks consider the supreme distinction of their calling to consist in their being shut off from undergraduates altogether and aspire to dedicate not more than a few hours a week of their high-priced services to small super-specialized graduate courses working in comfortable monastic seclusion without accountability to anybody. To be sure, only a few favorites of Minerva are chosen to realize this ideal. But none the less all are infected by its demoralizing influence, and those who are unable to attain to it in big lecture courses make the best terms they can with their hard lot by hedging themselves in tightly with assistants and demonstrators to make themselves inaccessible to the great mass of their students.

All this is a fatal orientation of the university's mission, and ends by setting its professors in a false position to the public and putting them out of touch therewith. The evil is graver in the more prominent institutions than in the humbler ones, because the latter, unable to indulge expensive tastes, are forced to content themselves with hard work and to have their activities measured by the most effective teaching in their power, which, in turn, brings them into closer and more favorable touch with their communities. Thus, so far as in them lies, the small colleges realize unwittingly and in spite of themselves the highest function of the university—the imparting of duly authenticated knowledge to those able to come into contact with it. On this point they conform to Professor Everett's admirable definition (quoted by Mr. Villard): "The great need of the American college to-day is not further specialization, but the more masterful and inspiring teaching of the fundamental courses which constitute the essential elements of a liberal education."

Properly, the college differs essentially from the school only in aiming to provide such teaching to more mature students by specialists of exceptional attainments with facilities for keeping up these attainments by constant additions and regular productiveness. In other words, the college professor is expert and leader in his subject while remaining a teacher: he works *with* and among his colleagues of the schools without being shut off from them by a sharp line. But to dogmatize on this definition is to touch on slippery ground. Besides, the weight of testimony is against it. College presidents themselves only perfunctorily admit "teaching power" as an asset in the required qualifications of the top-notch professor, putting it last and negligible. Hear, for example, President Faunce in his report for 1914 (quoted by Mr. Villard): "The maximum [salary] can apply to few teachers—to those who by rare attainments in scholarship, by notable publications, or by demonstrated teaching power, have won not only the personal regard of colleagues and students, but wide recognition in the intellectual and educational world."

As a measure of standardizing the professor's status this tripartite definition leaves the main issue to one side high and dry, because it subordinates the only visible and tangible factor in the professor's *raison d'être* to the shadowy and uncertain. It makes teaching power incidental to scholarship and publication rather than the test of these, an amazing inversion of college values. How a college professor can be thought of as a successful scholar and author divorced from zealous and successful teaching passes our comprehension. Yet there are such Benedictines and worthy of all respect—but they have no place on college faculties, where they and their unworthy followers and disciples create embarrassment by putting us in a false position as a profession of learned parasites.

Even admitting this tripartite formula of the most deserving professors, in its application it becomes a horse of another color. It is impossible to be measured with confidence as three persons of one substance, save in some conspicuous examples of established reputation upon which all judges agree. As for the great body of the others—few outside a narrow circle of experts are able to pass on their attainments save as these become demonstrated by sustained productiveness, and few professors have at heart the teaching problems of school and college grades. The "personal regard of colleagues" is often—far too often—based on extrinsic and factitious elements that are wholly beside the question of professional fitness for a given chair—indeed, sometimes in flagrant defiance of the notorious *un*fitness of a given occupant. The deciding factors in holding a professor's job may be—and too often are—social or church affiliations, a popular personality ("mixer") that disarms would-be critics, a sense of faculty solidarity that screens the unfit from uncomfortable scrutiny, a 'varsity *esprit de corps* that binds together teaching colleagues from the same alma mater by a sense of comradeship rather than a question of merit.

Somewhere Mr. Villard spoke of the indifference of the average college professor to the fate of his colleague, watching his persecution or dismissal with the same callousness as the rabbit that sees his fellow-bunny chased up and down the warren by the ferret. My own observation shows me that such a comparison is forced, and that on investigation you will find that such a man is outside the main current of college intercourse and falls because of that fact either through an excessive individuality that constitutes both his merit and his weakness or through an aggressive ability that has aroused dangerous jealousy among his fellows, some of them unfit to be classed with him. In no other way than by the operation of these subtle but all-powerful influences can we account for the presence on every college faculty of any size of its inevitable contingent of professors who—as some one recently put it in the *Nation*—are "neither sound scholars *nor* respectable teachers." Who can deny the plentiful existence in both West and East—but especially the former—of the college "professor" paid from $2,000 to $3,000 who could not earn one-half that amount in a good high school where a practical test of efficiency would be demanded? These are the men—along with their mandarin colleagues of the leading institutions—who are a deadweight to the college profession in its endeavors to elevate its status by an appeal to public bounty.

The road to the remedy lies in a greater esteem for departmental organization, and the expectation by boards and presidents that the college professor shall display some administrative ability so as to coöperate effectively with the forces he is connected with above and below him: in short, some elementary business sense in the conduct of departmental affairs, a disposition to make himself approachable, promptness in keeping appointments, and a willingness to get acquainted with the students in his end of the department, however large, and to make a broad supervision of their academic interests a prime test of the teaching ability to be expected of him. But by thus tacking on a fourth requirement to the professor's qualifications we are hopelessly complicating the problem instead of hastening its solution. The profession will gain by having a better exhibition of this last, even at the expense of something in the other three, for without it the profession fails to give the most favorable account of itself even at its best. The faculty chain of coöperative action is no stronger than its weakest link, and many such links are ever present from the circumstance that internal departmental

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organization is the weakest feature of college administration, a weakness translating itself in a happy-go-lucky routine that would break up any good-sized high school. Academic freedom should not mean administrative slovenliness, along with its demoralizing play of favoritism, any more than mandarin exclusiveness. Such blemishes are more discernible in institutions of private foundation than in those supported by public taxation. But even these are far from being exempt. But so long as they are condoned or encouraged they hold down the professors from making a successful appeal to public sympathies.

R. E. BASSETT.

Cincinnati, O.

[We have thought it well to permit our correspondent to present at considerable length a phase of this question which is frequently met with. While we cannot at all agree with him, we realize that only by discussion can the merits of the case be established. If the "efficiency" of the high-school teacher is the ideal to be sought after by the professor, then the university, in any traditional sense, might as well go out of business. If in recent years the university has fostered the notion that any scholar could be a teacher, this, at least, is better than the inverse idea that a course in pedagogy is an open sesame. The ideal professor is a scholar so full of his subject that he cannot help but impart it with enthusiasm, both by teaching and by learned articles.—ED. THE NATION.]

THE RESPECT OF UNDERGRADUATES.

I was deeply interested in Mr. Villard's article, "The Pay of Professors," which appeared in your issue of January 13, and I thought that as an undergraduate attending one of our American colleges I might be able to throw a little light on the question which he so appropriately and forcibly puts to his readers: "How is the college youth of America to regard all this? How is it to be expected that he will have the proper respect for what is the poorest paid profession in America?"

There is, at present, only one answer to this question, which is, of course, quite obvious. The undergraduate, perhaps, cannot reasonably be expected to have any desire to enter so poorly paid a profession as is teaching in America to-day; but ill-paid as that profession is, I am quite sure that the great majority of undergraduates hold it in high esteem and respect it heartily and thoroughly. To assume that college undergraduates are scornful of any thoroughly fine profession simply because the men in that profession are unfortunate enough to be paid less than they deserve, is, it seems to me, a reflection on the undergraduates as disgraceful as it is false. The professors are, very naturally, a subject or subjects much under discussion in the academic world, and especially in that small section of the academic world which the undergraduates occupy. I have been present at hundreds of such discussions. Unpopular professors are rent limb from limb; popular professors receive high praise and plenty of it; but even to those professors who are most cordially disliked is accorded a certain indefinable, yet none the less thoroughgoing, respect. The average undergraduate realizes, at least partially, what his professor is attempting to do for him. He knows that it is a good thing, and whether he likes his professor or no, he must, nevertheless, respect him for it. If he has the knowledge of even the average undergraduate he is aware that his professor is ill-paid; has strong views on the subject, and will express them if he is properly driven into a corner. The graduating class of last spring was asked to respond to the question, "What is our college's greatest need?" Almost half of them replied, "Higher salaries for the professors." And so it has been for several years before the one so lately completed.

Many of the undergraduates deplore the unfavorable comparison of the salaries of our modern football coaches with those of our professors, but regardless of how unfavorable to the professors that comparison may be I am strongly inclined to believe that the undergraduate will never lack a deep-rooted and thorough respect for his professors.

HENRY W. KING.

Williamstown, Mass.

The Wells-vs.-Bennett Controversy

MR. BENNETT'S NATURALISM.

When Mrs. Gerould's commentary on Mr. Sherman's article on Bennett and realism appeared, I hoped that certain features of the essay that had been troubling me would receive further attention; but the controversy at the present date seems to have resolved itself, with minor exceptions, into a discussion of two topics: H. G. Wells and "the eternal feminine." Now I have no particular admiration for Mr. Wells; and, on the other hand, I feel unlimited confidence in Mrs. Gerould's ability to defend her views of Hilda and "the eternal feminine." But I should like to bring Mr. Bennett back into the argument.

Mr. Sherman's undoubtedly clever essay aroused my wonderment in various ways. But I dwell not now on its curiously divaricate quality; nor on that astounding feat of archery attributed to the fervid Rebecca West, whose arrows, speeding to the heart of laughter, do not kill, but stimulate—presumably because they sing. My chief difficulty is to identify in Mr. Bennett an exponent of "genuine realism." The view that any fiction which is true to the facts of life acknowledges the existence in the individual of a "power-to-control," recognizes individual responsibility, and sets forth life in terms of character—a view which, I take it, fairly well represents Mr. Sherman's underlying thesis in his essays on "the new realists"—is one with which I am in perfect accord. It is precisely because I cannot see in Mr. Bennett's novels any consistent adherence to this principle, that I do not find Mr. Bennett a "genuine realist."

The "pocket philosophies" for which Mr. Sherman manifests such great respect seem to offer basis for his opinion of the novels; but it it hardly necessary to hold that "Mr. Bennett, the popular novelist, and Mr. Bennett, the popular philosopher, are distinct and non-communicating beings" in order to suspect that the novelist may not embody in his fiction all of the theories of the "philosopher." The testimony of Mr. Bennett, the popular philosopher, has at best but corroborative value, and seems to me to be more than counterbalanced by the testimony of Mr. Bennett, the autobiographer and critic. In view of the self-revelations in "The Truth about an Author" and in "Fame and Fiction," one might almost venture to paraphrase Mr. Sherman and announce "I cannot follow a critic who sees in Mr. Bennett a humanistic interpreter of life; and, what is far more interesting, neither can Mr. Bennett!" Certainly that unenlightened writer refers easily to his early naturalistic tendencies, explicitly terms one of his less known but thoroughly typical novels "naturalistic," and feels that he comes "under the category of Max Nordau's polysyllabic accusations." He shamelessly proclaims that his literary "gods" are the French naturalistic novelists. He apparently would be as shocked as Mr. Wells himself at the charge that he is "Victorian." From his period of literary apprenticeship he aimed to have his work "excessively modern"; he scorned the work of the great Victorians; he wanted to do something different; and I think he has succeeded.

Of course, I do not insist that the words of Mr. Bennett, the critic, are to receive any more weight than the words of Mr. Bennett, the "philosopher"; I suspect that in both rôles the Denry in him frequently comes to the top, and that he sometimes writes with his tongue in his cheek. But since the critic so easily diverges from the "philosopher," it seems quite possible that the "philosopher" does not always dominate the novelist. It is to the novels themselves that we must look for the philosophy of life that they embody.

In this aspect of the case I once more find myself subscribing heartily to one of Mr. Sherman's doctrines: namely, that these novels are not "photographic realism," are not without a groundwork of general ideas. Mr. Bennett himself laughs to scorn the theory that there can be any such thing as photographic realism, and definitely affirms that novels are based upon ideas. Moreover, I cheerfully admit that in the interpretation of life these novels present, I find various scattered incidents that do set forth life in terms of character—that do represent individuals as something more than the inert prey of every impulse and influence.

Admitting all this, however, I still do not find the novels consistently or even predominantly humanistic. I recall the long procession of Mr. Bennett's characters whose careers are followed to the end: Hannah Myatt, Constance and Sophia Baines, Darius Clayhanger, Sarah Gailey, "Aunty Hamps"—the list might be tripled; and in every case human existence is set forth ultimately not in terms of character, but in terms of fleshly dissolution. In the final analysis life is futile, life is meaningless; as it is, of course, from the naturalistic point of view. Now it does not seem to me necessary "God to scan" in order to recognize that from a life of responsibility and self-control there result durable satisfactions and enrichments, and not merely pathological phenomena. Disease and death come to all; they end this life; but they do not sum it up. Mrs. Gerould before me has perceived that the lines Mr. Sherman quotes from the "Puritan" poet (the news of this apostasy has not a little perturbed certain Anglicans) reveal the difference between a consistently humanistic interpretation of life and Mr. Bennett's presentation. If Mr. Sherman had completed

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the quotation, he would have recalled to his readers that "a sweet and virtuous soul," unlike the "starved" characters of Constance and Sophia (to consign them to spiritual starvation merely because they do not follow "beautiful impulses" appears to me remarkably "modern"), would, even when facing the ultimate crisis, "then chiefly live." Mr. Bennett's analysis of life culminates in pathology. In all humility, I prefer the interpretation of George Herbert. To me it is more genuinely humanistic.

It would be easy to show that the Five Towns novels not only sum up life in terms of carnality, but also too often present its various relationships in like terms. However, enough has been advanced, I hope, to make clear my reasons for maintaining that there is a large infusion of naturalism in the work of Mr. Bennett. Not without significance is the conclusion of so many of his readers that he has no underlying philosophy; it is because they, with the common sense that Mr. Sherman in general admires, do not regard this confused and predominantly naturalistic philosophy as philosophy at all. Even though they may be more or less conscious of the inclusion of humanistic elements, they are dimly aware that these novels present, not a consistent theory of life, but a muddle of English middle-class common-sense—admirable enough, but, despite Mr. Sherman's rapturous praises, not without spiritual limitations—and Continental animalism.

GEORGE B. DUTTON.

Williamstown, Mass.

A WEATHER-BEATEN HAT IN THE RING.

Will you permit the entrance into the Wells-Bennett discussion of one who will readily acknowledge, if accused as Professor Sherman has been by Mrs. Gerould, that he has not read all the important works of either Englishman? In Professor Sherman's, as in Lord Macaulay's reviews, the author under consideration functions as a peg to support the philosophical hat affected by the reviewer. Whether the right peg has been selected or whether the hat is hung up with proper care is not especially important. But it is essential to find some place for that hat.

And what a hat! Weather-beaten, worn, old-fashioned, hardly recognizable as a hat, yet serviceable under ordinary conditions and plainly second-hand as all conventional products are. Not satisfied with the tolerance extended to that hat by other people, Professor Sherman would have them wear the same kind of battered headgear, for the reason that it has been worn a long time in the past, that many are wearing it now, and that he among others intends to wear it for a long time to come. The desire for individuality in hats, for color, novelty, and style, even for the grotesque and absurd, is an anti-social desire. The impulse to follow one's own ideas in hats, instead of finding the long-established traditional mode and adopting it, is an anarchic impulse. The determination to try different kinds and to discard without ado the hats that are displeasing is an inartistic and subversive determination.

Does not Professor Sherman realize that the acceptance of his plea for conventionality will involve, first, widespread imitation, and, last, stagnant uniformity and universal monotony? Has he no sympathy with Mr. Dreiser's attempt to picture the career of an individual bent on following out the responses prompted by his environment according to that individual's own standard of values, and not according to a standard externally imposed? Even though disaster resulted, the experiment in itself was a success artistically because it was a departure from the field of imitation and conventionality, an innovation in originality and sincerity of living.

Professor Sherman complains because the "young" demand clear-headed, self-disciplined rulers and yet seek anarchic freedom for themselves. Why should they not? Responsibility goes hand in hand with rule. The teaching, preaching critic aims at being a ruler. Let him be responsible for knowledge of his field, for control of a sound critical method, and for the results normally to be expected from his criticism. But for the "young," let them roam at will, live as they please and can, seek the novel and tempting in experience, far from the limbo of conventional old hats.

CARL HAESSLER.

Urbana, Ill.

WELLS'S APPRECIATION OF BENNETT.

By way of making myself useful in the interesting discussion which has been going on, I quote from Mr. H. G. Wells's article, "The Contemporary Novel," in the *Atlantic Monthly* for January, 1912:

". . . while the English spirit is toward discursiveness and variety, the new French movement is rather toward exhaustiveness. One who is, I think, quite the greatest of our contemporary English novelists, Mr. Bennett, has experimented in both forms of amplitude. His superb 'Old Wives' Tale,' wandering from person to person and from scene to scene, is by far the finest 'long novel' that has been written in English, in the English fashion, in this generation; and now in 'Clayhanger' and its promised collaterals he undertakes that complete, minute, abundant presentation of the growth and modification of one or two individual minds which is the essential characteristic of the Continental movement toward the novel of amplitude. While the 'Old Wives' Tale' is discursive, 'Clayhanger' is exhaustive; he gives us both types of the new movement in perfection."

Perhaps in some of those works which are not novels, in which Mr. Bennett sets forth his "philosophy," he has been equally as complimentary of Mr. Wells. I do not know.

HILARY GOODE RICHARDSON.

Baltimore, Md.

THE CASE ARBITRATED.

It is curious comment on the recent discussion in the *Nation* of the work of Mr. Arnold Bennett and Mr. H. G. Wells that one can admit that Prof. Stuart P. Sherman has proved his point concerning Mr. Bennett, and at the same time agree with most of what Mrs. Katharine Fullerton Gerould says about Mr. Wells. That this is so I believe to be due to the forgetting or ignoring by Mrs. Gerould of certain important values attainable by the realistic method and by no other. She finds in Mr. Bennett's characters no "spiritual insight." True, they do not talk or even think in terms of ideals. But if any spirit can be found in them, it is at least genuine, no matter how deeply imbedded it may be in sordidness. In these times we need to be reminded with emphasis that there is a value belonging to the least spark of real, actual spirit which cannot be claimed for the most admirable dream.

Of course, no one contends that Mr. Wells's characters, with all their enthusiasm, are real. Mr. Wells himself is real and fired with a purpose, and has all the value which that implies. But his characters, by so much as they fall short of reality, by so much they lose in value. In spite of this defect, over which we are carried by Mr. Wells's impetuosity, his books do, as Mrs. Gerould contends, serve to communicate their author's inspiration. In this they have a purpose and a value other than those of Mr. Bennett.

Thus much I willingly grant. But I desire to ask: Does it not ill become a lover of the spirit to deny spirit wherever it may be found? And if, as Professor Sherman maintains, Mr. Bennett truthfully portrays "the development of character in relation to a developing society," is not that a spiritual process? It will never set the world ablaze, but does not the only hope of kindling the world by noble dreams lie in that smouldering fire? And after all who can say what may be the inspiration of the lesson, well learned, that a core of spirit, dwarfed and distorted it may be, but still truly spirit, stirs within the sordid? For spirit cannot be found merely by getting rid of the ugly and the mean and what we do not like. If life is sordid, the spirit must be found within it and, by growing or being fanned to flame, must transfuse and transform to beauty. It cannot be denied that nobler phases of life than that of the Five Towns and no less real are to be found. But in portraying and expressing the spirit of that life Mr. Bennett has created a work of art not only excellent in technique, but illuminating to spiritual discernment.

The work of Mr. Bennett and the work of Mr. Wells have values which are essentially incommensurable. If Mr. Wells is the more powerful inspirer, Mr. Bennett is the greater artist.

JOHN H. NEELY.

Banning, Cal.

Chinese Scholarship

CHINESE HISTORY AS A FIELD FOR RESEARCH.

No movements of recent years have been more momentous than the transformations that have been in progress in China. The Chinese are the most numerous of peoples, and comprise at least a fifth of the world's population. In the course of a history antedating that of any other existing nation they also produced, with but one important contribution from the outside, a mighty civilization, a stupendous achievement when compared with the composite origin of our own culture. In native intelligence, endurance, industry, and political ability, many keen observers have felt them to be the equals of any. And this nation is being transformed before our very eyes. What political, commercial, and cultural consequences will follow no one can now foresee, but they are a matter of world concern.

In these changes the United States has an especial interest. But our open-door policy we have assumed responsibilities, rather ill defined, to be sure, but real. Our trade with China is destined to be of large importance. More Chinese students are studying in Amer-

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ica than in all Europe, and are bringing into the plastic new China a distinct and powerful American influence. We have undertaken in China extensive missionary and philanthropic enterprises. Our relations are certain to grow closer and more vital as the development of the Pacific area proceeds.

With these relations there is an increasing need for accurate historical perspective. The new China has a vital connection with the old. In institutions, in culture, in ideals, its present and its future are inseparably connected with its past. As revolutionary as recent changes have been—changes which have followed the influx of an entirely alien civilization—there has been no sudden break with the past. The old and the new are woven together in the present, and the old will project itself far into the future. An accurate knowledge of the past must be the foundation for any full understanding of the present. Without this full understanding, both Chinese and foreigners are certain to make grave mistakes.

These very obvious facts and our special interests in China would seem to indicate that American students should be among the leaders in unravelling China's past. Yet at the present time we are almost entirely neglecting it. We have produced numerous books and articles on present-day China and the China of the past hundred years, books and articles of travel, of diplomacy, of missions, of life and customs, and on the present and future prospects of China. And yet we have paid but little serious attention to the historical background. We have been too engrossed elsewhere or have been too fearful of the difficulties of the language, or we have been ignorant of the fulness and interest of the material at our disposal. We have been guilty of the same narrowness of outlook of which we have accused the Chinese and have narrowed our historical field to that line of development which has come down to us through the Mediterranean basin. It would require but a small shelf to contain the books by American authors which deal with the China that antedates 1800, and most of these are by men now dead. If the list of titles of doctors' dissertations now in course of preparation is a fair indication, there are no men coming up from our graduate schools to take their places.

There seems to be a desire only for a superficial knowledge of the field. Our college and university courses on the Far East usually cover only a year or a half-year, and devote most of their attention to present-day China. In only three of our universities is even elementary instruction given in the language, and in but one more is it possible to obtain adequate guidance in the study of such Chinese history as is available in western languages. And even in three of these four universities the instruction is given by men of foreign birth and training. We have but one learned society which at all encourages the study of Chinese civilization or provides for the publication of the results of that study.

Were the work being done elsewhere our responsibility might not be so great. But even in France, which has led Western nations in the study of things Chinese, only a beginning has been made. That nation has, indeed, thanks to its early missionary connections, given us a remarkable line of scholars who for more than a hundred years have been producing studies on China, old and new, studies which have made all of us their debtors. Great Britain and more recently Germany have had sinologues of note who have given attention to China's early history. All three countries possess learned societies devoted largely to that field. But the scholarship of Europe, able as it has often been, has so far succeeded merely in making a beginning. It has given us some translations and summaries of the Chinese general histories. It has given us numerous and notable studies of special problems, but these studies have most of them centred upon relatively few periods and phases of Chinese history. They are but the beginnings of those monographs from which the larger whole must some time be constructed.

Japanese scholars have long been interested in Chinese history, and of late years have begun to use in their work modern methods of research. They are, however, chiefly interested in Chinese history at the points where it touches that of Japan, and are apt to treat it from the standpoint of its Japanese relations. Their work, too, is done in Japanese, which from the standpoint of language presents to the Western student almost as many difficulties as does Chinese.

Nor need we for some time to come expect much help from contemporary Chinese scholarship. For many years the energies of the abler and better-trained Chinese will be engrossed by the immediate problems of national reorganization and development. So herculean is the task of even educational reorganization that years must elapse before an historical scholarship trained on modern lines can arise to produce work on Chinese history equal to that which the West is even now producing.

It is time, then, that we of America began to bear our share of the burden. The problems awaiting us are numerous and are of the greatest interest. The origins and early development of the Chinese people, of their language, written and spoken, of their philosophy, of their government, early Chinese contact with other peoples, the constitutional and institutional development of China, an adequate history of Taoism and of Chinese Buddhism, a history of Chinese philosophy, China's economic development, well proportioned histories of each of the dynasties; these, with many other similarly important problems, await the study of well-trained historians and archæologists.

The material for such work is surprisingly large. No nation has given itself so earnestly over so extensive a period of time to preparing and preserving historical records as have the Chinese. The twenty-four dynastic histories alone, for instance, number more than thirty-two hundred books, and a usual edition, when bound in the Western manner, fills more than seventy thick octavo volumes. From early times Chinese scholars have conformed to certain sound canons of criticism, and much of their work, although sadly lacking in perspective, is by no means to be despised. Political history has been their chief interest, but material in the other fields which are today covered by historical science is to be found in their literature. Much of this material is available in convenient form in collective editions. These vary in size from a few volumes and a few works to enormous collections of hundreds or even thousands of volumes and many scores of works. There are, too, aids in the form of bibliographies and shorter summaries of history. There are as yet no collections of this material in the United States which equal those of England, Germany, or France, but in a few places, Berkeley and New York, for instance, there are fairly complete private collections of the more common works.

The preparation required for such work is more easily acquired than it was a few years ago. In Columbia, Yale, and California, year or two-year courses are now offered in Chinese under competent instructors. There are in China several recently organized schools for the study of the language and each year sees an increase in the supply of printed helps. The increasing number of Government and missionary institutions of higher education, with their demand for well-trained Western teachers, our carefully organized Consular system, with its provision for the study of the language and of the country, the foreign staff of the Chinese customs service, all afford opportunities which combine an immediately useful occupation, a moderate income, and some leisure for study. We may expect notable contributions from Americans who are already giving their lives to these various occupations, but it is to be hoped that there will be an increasing number of our younger scholars who will go out for a few years with the purpose of returning eventually to the United States and continuing their work here. The coming few years should see an increased demand for their services on the faculties of our universities both as teachers and as investigators.

R. S. Latourette.

Portland, Ore.

The Bombardment of Unfortified Brains

A PLEA FOR RESPECTING THE NEUTRALITY OF UNFORTIFIED BRAINS.

Is, then, nothing to be left undisturbed in these savage days? We have read with dismay of the bombardment of unfortified cities—cities whose neutrality should have insured their preservation in all the sacredness of their ancient traditions. And now the unfortified brain—the very *arcanum* of our democracy—is ruthlessly bombarded! Whither are we tending? Is this insidious militarism to stop at nothing? Are all the shy beauties of cerebration in our fair land to be ruthlessly laid bare and torn asunder by the forty-two centimetre guns of the pedagogue?

I am moved, sir, thus to mount the rostrum, and rise to what is, I trust, a proper pitch of forensic eloquence, by the savage "Bombardment of Unfortified Brains" which rent the columns of the *Nation* on December 9, 1915. I can, it is true, understand, and in a measure sympathize with, the desperate intentions of the author of that letter. He had discovered among his pupils ignorance of matters with which he had thought all the world was conversant. Being young and ardent (may I, deferentially, venture this inference?), he was grieved at the discovery. So far, I, as an elderly philosopher of the classroom, sympathize with him. I, too, have lived in Arcadia. But there, warily, he should have paused. Instead, having peppered his students with the machine-gun of Gallipoli, he rose in his wrath and hurled at them a veritable Jack Johnson! "What is the capital of Bulgaria?" "What countries bound Servia?" Was that fair? If somebody met me in the street, and asked me, *apropos de bottes*, to bound Servia, I do not

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know whether I should try to turn aside his glittering eye with airy persiflage or with a reference to the "Encyclopædia Britannica." The only thing I am perfectly sure of is that I couldn't gratify him. My brain is not made that way.

But it is not so much my own inadequacy, nor my incidental suspicion that "there are others" that I wish to emphasize. Rather would I plead that we should respect the neutrality of the unfortified brain—nay, more, that instead of bombarding it with savage intent, and deducing Cassandra prophecies from the resulting devastation, we should give ourselves to a whole-hearted and philosophic enjoyment of the spectacle which the unfortified brain affords.

I, too, am a teacher of English; and while, for reasons at which I have already hinted and upon which I naturally hesitate to expatiate, I have not asked any students for the boundaries of Servia, I have asked questions the results of which are numbered among my purest joys. What would the life of the retired and adventurous teacher of English literature be without the "survey-course"? Chaucer, I learn, "lived in the age of Chaucer." "Caedmon lived about the same time as Chaucer and wrote an early English language. He was a singer and tended towards religion." "Spenser made a translation of the Ænead (*sic*) in which he tells about Helen of Greece who became the wife of Pallas." "Spenser wrote in rhyme but leaned back on the ancients." "Bacon wrote his Vox Clamantis and Speculum Meditantis on different forms of scientific discovery." "Keats wrote a number of sonnets, both long and short." "Burns comes at the beginning of the nineteenth century. He was an accident."

And what could be more fundamentally illuminating than the following identification and comment?

> E'en there before the fatal engine closed,
> A wretched sylph too fondly interposed;
> Fate urged the shears and cut the sylph in twain.

"This passage is from Milton's 'Lycidas,' which shows the regret and grief Milton feels for the loss of his friend who was drowned. The fatal engine may refer to the two factions in the House of Parliament, although the critics themselves are not certain. The sylph refers to the thread of life. According to the Classics there are three threads, one which ushers men into the world, one of life, and the other of death. Fate is here personified and cuts the thread of life. He was drowned in the Irish channel."

Verily, there are things in this life too precious to be bombarded! Oscar Wilde says somewhere that ignorance is like an exotic plant: "Touch it and the bloom is gone."

But a truce to jesting. I am entirely serious in my conviction that the author of the "Bombardment," and for that matter most of us when similarly circumstanced, make a mistake in finding dire portents in the pervasive ignorance of the undergraduate. I have a boy of fourteen who hears much discussion of the war in his own home, and could probably pass an examination on the nomenclature of it as well as most youths; but I doubt if it is more than skin-deep with him. *His* realities are "wireless" and his little snow-covered play-hut down in the forest. And yet I have no doubt that when he is ripe for it, he will put away childish things and think as a man. As for college-students, *their* realities are certainly not English literature, and not even the more tangible problems of science or economics or physics. Class elections and sports and the vagaries of their fellows and their instructors bound their conscious horizon. When they compete for an academic prize, it is the prize, the glamour of success, that lures them, not the really profitable things which they will be gaining in the struggle. Why worry about it? All of us have to live into life before we can live it. Doubtless it would have been better if the two upper classmen who had never heard of Gallipoli *had* heard of it, and yet I have a kind of faith that these very ignoramuses are getting something in their college life which will help them to a clarity of thinking and a sense of responsibility when they find themselves a part of the responsible world of citizens and voters. And if they don't; if they remain ignoramuses—mere sheep—I am not sure that even that matters very much. After all, citizenship, even in a body politic that calls itself a democracy, is a remarkably selective thing. Theorize as you like about the potency of every vote, it will always be the few who *can* think who will decide what part the nation will take in these momentous questions—and there will always be the herd to follow them.

EDMUND KEMPER BROADUS.

University of Alberta.

A FLANK ATTACK ON THE BOMBARDER.

As you are no doubt aware, the letter from "X" on "The Bombardment of Unfortified Brains," in your issue of December 9, 1915, has roused a good deal of discussion. The Chicago *Tribune*, for instance, under the caption "In Darkest America," summarizes the letter and draws the conclusion that every college should establish courses in newspaper reading. The editor of a Western college paper, arguing after the fashion of the *Tribune*, more distinctly lays the blame on the college faculties. "Occasionally it appears," he says, "to those anxious to know a little of what is going on in the active world outside the college that the entire curriculum and faculty are in a conspiracy to prevent such knowledge. . . . We are told that the student is expected to gather this information for himself. The best answer . . . is that he seldom does. . . . So long as the college curriculum places so little emphasis on these things he cannot be expected to make the effort and do so himself."

In passing, I may remark that to me the most depressing weakness of the average college student is not his ignorance, but his tendency to feel that he "cannot be expected" to learn anything outside the curriculum. What I wish to object to here, however, is the assumption, made by both "X" and his commentators, that his experiment has shown college students to be disgracefully ignorant of current affairs. Let us consider the evidence offered to us.

Presumably without warning, "X" gave to several freshman divisions and to one or two more advanced classes an examination on Balkan geography and on the rulers and military leaders of the countries at war. The result seemed to him disappointing; but he has given us no adequate account of it. He tells us merely that no one handed in a perfect paper; and then he proceeds to quote a number of amusing mistakes. How many perfect papers is he accustomed to receive from his classes, even in announced examinations in subjects which they have formally studied? Has he never discovered that collections of absurd mistakes may be gathered from any large set of examination papers?

The fact is that no valid inference whatever can be drawn from the result of his examination, as he reports it. He does not tell us what per cent. of the students passed the test, or what the average grade was. The fact that no one received a perfect grade is not significant, because the examination, though not a hard one to pass, is decidedly hard to obtain a perfect grade on. If any one doubts this, let him sit down and try it. Suppose "X" had been able to give the same examination without warning to his colleagues of the faculty, or to a group of lawyers, or to a group of business men. How many perfect papers would he have been likely to receive? How many of them could have named correctly the countries which bound Servia? It would be surprising if more than one or two perfect papers could be found in all these groups combined; and in all probability a collection of blunders as absurd as those of the freshmen could be made from any of the groups. To test this supposition, I made a little experiment. I induced a few of my friends, who happened to be at my house one evening, to take "X's" examination. The group included a lawyer, a business man, a teacher, and a medical student. The highest grade made by any of the men was 78 (on a scale of 100); and the small number of papers yielded many amusing mistakes, including some of those made by "X's" students. One man made Budapest the capital of Bulgaria; another made King Edward ruler of England; another placed Montenegro on the Black Sea! Later I was talking of the matter with one of my colleagues, an exceptionally well-read and wide-awake man. He exclaimed, "Why, I can bound Servia!" and proceeded to do so, making two serious mistakes. I think it is a fair conclusion that "X's" examination has not shown college students to be more ignorant of facts relating to the war than are other presumably intelligent classes of people.

The reasons which the students gave for their ignorance are, to be sure, worse than the ignorance itself; but no doubt they were excusably a little indignant at having a test on the war "sprung" on them in an English class. After all, such a bombardment without warning is not quite according to the recognized rules of classroom warfare. And a stronger defence is certainly possible. If there is any matter in which ignorance is bliss, I should say it is the present war. To me it is a consoling thought that there are millions of good and sensible people who are going about their every-day duties and giving very little attention to the neutrality of Rumania or the Mesopotamian campaign. The war which is "shaking the world" is not shaking them; and they are doing us all a great service by helping us to keep our perspective, and to remember that war is an abnormality, an excrescence, and not the chief end of man.

Moreover, there is a special reason why college students ought not to be expected to study the newspapers with the strained attention which we older ignoramuses are devoting to the task. They are withdrawn for four years from the workaday world and its concerns, chiefly in order that their minds may be enriched and strengthened by gaining some knowledge of the great past and its lessons, without which no man can under-

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stand or judge of the present or the future. To gain such knowledge, four years is a pitiably inadequate time. Is the student to be blamed if he devotes whatever intellectual energy he has to his chief business, even at the cost of ignorance of the boundaries of Servia or the changes in the French Cabinet? I do not assert that all or most college students neglect the present through absorption in the past; but some of them do, and I maintain that they are right. I confess without the slightest shame that when I was in college the Spanish War did not tempt me to read newspapers regularly; indeed, in my present bedazed subservience to newspapers, I look back with envy and regret upon that period when, if I wasted my time, I wasted it more wisely and more happily. And so, even if "X" had proved his case, I should decline to be at all alarmed.

HOMER E. WOODBRIDGE.

Colorado Springs.

IN DEFENCE OF THE COLLEGE STUDENT.

There have been numerous assertions of late, in the columns of the *Nation* and elsewhere, that the average undergraduate of our colleges can talk intelligently on no subjects but athletics and "student activities." I am glad to be able to offer an experience of my own in rebuttal.

I recently dined with a representative group of students, twenty-five or thirty young men, drawn from the four classes of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. I was the only guest, and I purposely refrained from leading the conversation. In the course of the quarter of an hour before dinner, the dinner itself, and the hour or more after dinner, the following subjects of conversation were introduced by different individuals and were intelligently and interestingly discussed:

The war now in progress, the Plattsburg encampment, handwriting as an index of character, the relative values of the scientific mind and the artistic mind to the individual and to the race, the relation of the genius to his age, the Bacon-Shakespeare fallacy, trades-unionism, the profligacy and wastefulness of sailors, the meaning of success in life, and the desirability of limiting the franchise.

The above list is probably not exhaustive—I simply jot down the subjects as they recur to my memory—but the noteworthy fact is that athletics and "student activities" were not mentioned.

I have spent many a two hours with men of my own age, and in all walks of life, with far less entertainment and instruction. I am hopeful of the next generation of men.

PROFESSOR.

Boston, Mass.

"MUCKRAKING" THE FRESHMAN.

While the business of muckraking freshmen is in order, let me add my share. Some time ago I required a class of about one hundred freshmen each to select a novel from a rather liberal list of the classics, and to write a report upon the book. It was specified that this report should give a frank statement of opinion, uninfluenced by the histories of literature. The experiment was not a new one; it is my custom to do this every year, but I was more impressed this year than ever before by the solid unanimity with which the books were condemned. That Thackeray should have been attacked by youthful critics was not surprising, but Scott was considered *deep*, and Stevenson was characterized as *very heavy!* Many read "The Master of Ballantrae," and all disliked it. One read "Kidnapped," and found the story difficult to understand. Moreover, he quite failed to respond to the brilliant Alan Breck. "The Talisman" and "Rob Roy" were only tiresome. Significant, perhaps, was the fact that one student almost liked the latter part of "Mill on the Floss," but was much bored by the only part of the book worth while, the early chapters and the girlhood of Maggie Tulliver.

I quote a few specimen sentences from a review of "Adam Bede":

"On the whole, the story was very interesting. But George Eliot has a rather tiresome manner in which he describes the events. They are so wordy and might be easily cut in half and still not hurry through the story too rapidly. I noticed especially a number of short chapters which might have been left out without affecting the line of thought. The English and style of writing were very simple."

Is this partly the effect of the moving-picture craze, which fixes attention upon plot and action, thus tending to deaden an appreciation for literary flavor and the subtleties of life? Or is it merely the efficiency expert in a new field?

One man comforted me. He rather approved of "The Last Days of Pompeii," alleging in its favor a high ethical value, and in closing he said it reminded him much of "The Eyes of the World." Poor old Bulwer!

CLINTON N. MACKINNON.

Athens, O.

Amateur Adams

"AMERICANS" OR "USONIANS."

Apropos of the use and proper application of the word "American," entertainingly discussed in your columns (*Nation*, January 20) by Christine Ladd Franklin, it seems to me that the following points are worthy of consideration. For convenience, the discussion may be limited to the use of the word as a norm of nationality.

Ever since the organization of the government of the "United States of America"—a title officially adopted without the slightest assumption of superiority or exclusiveness—the word American has had two accepted meanings (many words, without any resulting inconvenience or confusion, have more than two accepted meanings): (1) A native or citizen of the continent of North America or of South America; (2) a native or citizen of the United States of America. Quite similarly, the designation "New Yorker" has two accepted meanings: (1) A native or citizen of the State of New York; (2) a native or resident of the city of New York. Just as in the latter case no discourtesy towards the citizens at large of the Empire State is implied, intended, or suspected in connection with the application of the term "New Yorker" to a resident of the city of New York ("are they not one and all" New Yorkers?), so no arrogance towards other nationalities of the continents of America is involved in the application—rightly understood—of the term "Americans" to the citizens of the United States of America.

Just as the citizen of the "United States of Mexico" is universally and appropriately known as a Mexican, just as the citizen of the "United States of Brazil" is known as a Brazilian, and the citizen of the "Dominion of Canada" as a Canadian, so the citizen of the "United States of America" is appropriately—may we not even say necessarily and inevitably?—known as an American. And this without any more justifiable sensitiveness or resentment on the part of the Mexican, the Brazilian, or the Canadian towards the "American" than on the part of the Ithacan or the Utican towards the "New Yorker." Are not the former one and all Americans, and are not the latter one and all New Yorkers?

As for the substitute "Usonian," "the name which has been devised [from the initials U. S.] for this purpose by the makers of the scientific auxiliary international languages," it may be suggested that the word might better be spelt "USonian" (in imitation of the "scientifically" formed, and at one time somewhat current term, "APAism," *i. e.*, the propaganda of the American Protective Association), were it not that the irreverent might be tempted to change its form to "USonlian."

HENRY ALFRED TODD.

Columbia Univerity.

USONIAN ARROGANCE.

I note that a correspondent objects to the use of the term "American" to designate a citizen of the United States, and suggests the use of the barbarous word "Usonian" instead.

The objector charges: (1) That we have bestowed the word on ourselves; (2) that this was done "arrogantly"; and (3) that Canadians, Mexicans, Argentines, and others have a right to object. I would like to see some proof that we "Americans" bestowed the name on ourselves, "arrogantly" or otherwise. I think it will be found that the usage was good English before it was adopted on this side of the sea. When the colonists thought of themselves only as Virginians, Pennsylvanians, etc., they were known in London as "Americans." Did not Burke make a speech on "American" taxation, and Chatham rejoice that the "Americans" had resisted? I have never investigated the subject, but the word is used in a state paper by an English Secretary of State in 1754. Current usage in London long before the revolution applied the term to the inhabitants of the thirteen colonies, and, "arrogantly" or otherwise, excluded Canadians, Mexicans, etc., from its benefits.

Whatever may be the case with the Canadians, Mexicans and Argentines should not reproach us with our use of the term. A usage of the same kind grew up in the same way in Spanish-America. South American writers apply the term "Americans" to the inhabitants of Spanish America, to the exclusion of those of the United States. How could an Argentine complain when his two great historians, Lopez and Mitre, use "America" and "Americans" with the United States and its inhabitants left out? A Spanish king thought seriously of proclaiming himself "Emperor of America."

As to the question, there is no reasonable objection to both a national use and a geographical use of the term. Surely we may assume that ordinary people are sufficiently

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clear-headed to make the distinction. A Canadian is not an "American" in the national sense, unless he comes across the line and takes out naturalization papers. I have never met one foolish enough to make the claim. He is an "American" in the geographical sense. I have never met any one foolish enough, or arrogant enough, to deny this. Your correspondent fails to see that "Usonian" is objectionable on much the same grounds as "American." Shall we "arrogantly" assume a title which implies that we are the only "United States"? There are several of them.

W. J. BURNER.

University of Missouri.

WHY NOT "USARIANS"?

Apropos of Mrs. Franklin's letter on the need of a word to distinguish the inhabitants of our country from the inhabitants of other American countries, and of the suggested word Usonian, has it ever been proposed to coin the word Usarian? Derivation: U. S. A. + Latin suffix *arius* (belonging to).

As we clearly may not claim
To be sole Americans,
For the future be our name,
Ours alone, Usarians.

H. D. W. GIBSON.

Oakland, Cal.

OR "USTATIANS"?

In the correspondence columns of the January 20 issue of your paper a writer suggests the adoption of the proposed name Usonian as a substitute for the word American as applied to the inhabitants of the United States, "until some one has something better to propose." I have suggested, and do so again, the name Ustatian (pro. U-sta'-shan) as being as euphonic as the word Usonian and even more distinctive. It would be easy to interpret it to mean Unitedstatians and in time could be brought into use throughout the world.

ROBT. F. KERR.

Brookings, S. D.

OR "UNITANS"?

The letter of your correspondent on the word "Usonian" reminded me that more than once has my attention been called inadvertently or purposely to the ambiguity of the term "American." A number of years ago, while crossing the Atlantic I fell into a conversation with a fellow-passenger, when he incidentally asked me what my nationality was. To my answer that I was an American he replied: "So am I; my home is in Winnipeg." On another occasion when I mentioned to a German in Leipzig that I was an American he remarked that he had a friend in America; perhaps I had met him. In answer to my question where he lived he said: "In Rio de Janeiro." I have noticed, however, that most of my German correspondents indicate that their letters are to be sent to the United States of North America. A man who said he was a United Statesan would be using a term that is not free from ambiguity, since there is a United States of Brazil and a United States of Mexico, both in America. Usonians or Usonans is a compound designation of the people of this republic that would obviate all misunderstanding. It would be fortunate if some way could be found to give it official sanction. Unitans would do very well also. At any rate our Congress would do a wise thing if it gave official sanction to some compound that would take the place of the unsatisfactory "American." This is just now particularly important when we are trying to come into more intimate relations with the republics south of us. It would prove to them that we do not claim to be the "whole thing." It is neither right nor polite for us to monopolize the entire western hemisphere. When the term United States of America was first adopted it was entirely proper because there was no other United States on this continent. And while this title cannot now be changed, it ought not to be difficult to get into popular use a compound that would accurately designate our citizens.

CHAS. W. SUPER.

Athens, O.

On Children's Reading

A SUGGESTED LIST.

Apropos of Mr. More's admirable article on juvenile literature (*Nation*, December 2, 1915) and Professor Sensemann's judicious comments (*Nation*, December 30, 1915), I should be glad to add a few suggestions. The difficulty is twofold; good bracing literature for young people is not being turned out in large quantities just now either in England or in America, and with us the appetite for such literature is not as strong as it should be. The present lack of keenness to read books that are worth while, on the part of American boys and girls, is largely due to the fact that they have so many other easier forms of amusement. If motion pictures, social functions among school children, summer and winter athletics at which the majority of those present are merely spectators, and cheap, flimsy periodical literature for young people were less abundant, there would be far more inclination for reading of the better sort. The remedy for this dulling of the mind from over-stimulation by trifles (it may be thought of as a sort of intellectual tickling to death) is more easy to describe than to apply.

As for the supply of literature: it seems to me that there is a good deal more than is mentioned in the articles to which I have referred. Probably, with the child as with the race, poetry should form an important part of the early literature. Of this there is no lack, since the verses of Robert Louis Stevenson, of Eugene Field, and of James Whitcomb Riley may pave the way for the old English ballads, and so on to the lyric and narrative poems of Burns, Scott, Wordsworth, Campbell, and a score of others.

Of prose, mostly written a generation or more ago, there are such juvenile classics as Kingsley's "Greek Heroes," Ruskin's "King of the Golden River," Harriet Martineau's "Peasant and Prince," Thackeray's "Rose and the Ring," Dodgson's "Alice in Wonderland," Dr. Brown's "Rab and his Friends," Jane Andrews's "Seven Little Sisters," Ouida's "Nürnberg Stove," Stevenson's "Treasure Island," Mrs. Burnett's "Little Lord Fauntleroy." All of these may be enjoyed along with abundant reading of the best fairy and other folk tales. Of children's books that are not quite classics there are many really worth while. A few that occur to me offhand are: Aldrich's "Story of a Bad Boy," Howells's "Boy's Town" (which, however, means more to the man than it can to any boy), French's "Lance of Kanana," many of Capt. Mayne Reid's books, especially "The Young Voyageurs," and several of those by J. T. Trowbridge and by Elijah Kellogg.

Many works, part of them fiction and others not, written for adults are wholesome and fascinating reading for well-grown children. A few, out of the many that might be cited, are: "Scott's "Talisman" and "Quentin Durward," Porter's "Scottish Chiefs," Kingsley's "Westward Ho!" Marryat's "Children of the New Forest," Dickens's "Old Curiosity Shop," Dana's "Two Years before the Mast." Along with these may be classed many of the best books of travel.

A moderately long list of translated books desirable for children's reading could easily be compiled. There are, for example, the absurd but wholly delightful Wyss's "Swiss Family Robinson," Candèze's "Grillo," Collodi's "Pinocchio," Aanrud's "Lisbeth Longfrock," Likken Zwilgmeyer's "Johnny Blossom," Selma Lagerlöf's "Wonderful Adventures of Nils," and Johanna Spyri's "Heidi."

Some of the books above mentioned are extremely faulty in one way or another. No sane critic of to-day would defend the inflated style of "The Scottish Chiefs" or the mawkish sentimentality of parts of "The Old Curiosity Shop." The sort of geographical distribution of animals and plants that is set forth in "The Swiss Family Robinson" is almost unthinkable. But these things do not matter—what does matter is that the books are of a character to interest children and young people in a wholesome, innocent fashion. Even if adventures crowd one another too thickly to the square foot in "Treasure Island," boys are not fools enough to be turned into would-be pirates or treasure seekers by reading it.

One important thing remains to be said. A priori judgments about reading for children and youth are not wholly to be trusted. Try the literature on its audience as the children of the Swiss Family tested new and doubtful articles of food on their unsuspecting monkey. Thus and thus only can one be sure that he has found the kind of thing that will at once interest and edify the young readers for whom he is purveying.

JOSEPH Y. BERGEN.

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THE LOVE OF LITERATURE.

I am neither a literary critic nor a teacher of expression. I am merely a mother, but I have had sixteen years' experience in teaching English literature, or, more properly, the *love* of English literature, to a family of children.

I quite agree with Mr. More that most of the so-called children's books are absolutely worthless. At holiday time, I received several catalogues of children's books, and upon looking them over I was disgusted with the offerings of our big publishing houses. The awful lists of "Patty at Boarding School," "Patty at College," "Bunny Books," "Little Colonel Series" (I may not have the titles exactly, for I threw the catalogues into the fire), made me wonder what our young people can be reading.

We have carefully supervised the reading of our children. We have had one fixed rule:

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There should be nothing but the best brought into the house. By "best" we mean, in general, the classics, the really great books in our language, and a few others whose worth nobody denies.

Our list is something like this: The Bible—no "Stories from the Bible," but Mrs. Joseph B. Gilder's edition, which cuts out genealogies and other unprofitable matter, but is, after all, really "The Bible"—"Arabian Nights," "Pilgrim's Progress," "Robinson Crusoe," Kingsley's "Four Greek Heroes," Lamb's "Ulysses," Kipling's "Jungle Books" and "Just So" stories, Howard Pyle's "King Arthur Books" and his "Robin Hood." We find Malory a little tedious and confusing—witness the two utterly different stories of Lancelot and Elaine. Pyle's language is that of Malory. It is Malory made possible for children, but with all the flavor, all the language of chivalry. After reading Pyle's books, the children of this neighborhood made armor, and the din of tournaments was in the air for many moons. The children also picked up some of the expressions, declaring that they were "sore wounded" and needed a "skilled leech," etc. There were also many discussions as to the moral conduct of the knights—whether they had acted in a right manner in such and such a case.

Kipling's "Puck of Pook's Hill" was also inspiring, especially the story of the Roman wall. For weeks, the children spoke, not of England and France, but of Britain and Gaul, and defended the hedge against the Picts in the orchard beyond.

Other books on the list are: Selma Lagerlöff's "Wonderful Adventures of Nils Holgorson," Baldwin's "Story of Siegfried," Dickens's "Child's History of England," "Ivanhoe," "Westward Ho!" "Hereward," "Toilers of the Sea," "Les Misérables," "David Copperfield."

All these I have read aloud, some of them more than once, and they have proved of fascinating interest to children from five to fifteen.

I disagree with Mr. Sensemann as to the value of Cooper. My boys were given the very interesting Indian book of Mr. James McLaughlin, many years Indian agent. After reading that, they realized that the noble red man of Cooper had never existed save in the imagination. They found Cooper stupid, his Indians impossible. Mr. Sensemann thinks a boy, after reading Cooper, would come out "satisfied, subdued, and bettered." I know a high school where the second-year English students spend five weeks reading "Last of the Mohicans" aloud in class. They certainly come out "subdued," but I doubt the satisfaction.

It would seem to me that a boy old enough to read Cooper might much better spend his time on George Macaulay Trevelyan's three remarkable books on Garibaldi and the freeing of Italy. There we have a fascinating account of Garibaldi's adventures in South America, the thrilling defence of Rome, the wonderfully managed "Retreat," during which Garibaldi escaped from three armies, pursuing him, the later expedition to Sicily with his famous "Thousand," the taking of Sicily, defended, as it was, by some 20,000 troops, and the final conquest of Italy. It is far more thrilling than any fiction we can read.

But, of course, I may be quite wrong; I am not an accredited teacher—I am merely a mother.

ISABEL VAN TYNE.

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Literature and Criticism

EARLY POEMS OF WALT WHITMAN.

Few writers have had the details of their later lives more faithfully reported than has Walt Whitman; and few writers of prominence have so soon left their youth and early manhood in such obscurity. I have been struck with the haste with which, whether from choice or necessity, his biographers have passed over the productions of his pen in the early 'forties. The most thorough biographer in dealing with this period gives to his discussion of these pieces but a few paragraphs, and refers to only one of them by name. To some of them he does not even refer. Whitman himself was avowedly loath to reprint the "Pieces in Early Youth" (Collect., 1882), which he considered "crude and boyish." He gives but four of the early poems, and no later edition, so far as I am aware, gives any more, although Binns refers in a hasty phrase to the "conventional verses" that Whitman contributed to the *New World*.

Now, all this is to be expected in the treatment of a mystical poet who is, in the conception of his biographers as well as in his own professions, a prophet. He is not the first bringer of a message concerning whose early life little is really understood. But, for all that, the child continues to be father of the man, however phenomenal a figure the man may be. The illumination of the human heart, under whatever name of religion or poetry or psychology it may go, certainly has a profound fusing, clarifying, and elevating influence; but it remains to be shown that it creates elements in the character which did not exist, even in embryo, before.

To illustrate just what I mean, let me refer to a few of the early pieces from Whitman's pen which I have recently discovered. He appears as one of the first contributors to the *Brother Jonathan* (quarto edition, 1842-1843, Wilson & Company, New York). On January 29, 1842 (Vol. I, No. 5), the first column of the first page was filled with a poem from "Walter Whitman," entitled "Ambition," which mixes rhymed with rough blank verse and is clearly autobiographical in its dream of fame. In the issue of February 26, 1842 (Vol. I, No. 9, pp. 243-244), appears from his pen an article on "Boz and Democracy," which in its spirit is a promise of the coming poetry of the "divine average." A writer in the Washington *Globe* had charged that Dickens was not a true democrat, since he dealt too familiarly and too exclusively with the submerged masses. Whitman, a confessed admirer of Dickens, champions vigorously that type of democracy which does not spurn the lowly, or even the outcast, but rather tries to pull them up to that average to which, by the way, the haughty must be brought down. Another poem appeared in this periodical about a year later (Vol. IV, No. 10, March 11, 1843, p. 290), entitled "Death of the Nature-Lover." Of this the editor says: "The following wants but a half-hour's polish to make it an effusion of very uncommon beauty." It shows the influence of Bryant, then a dominant figure in literary New York; but, notwithstanding its conventional rhyme, it is an earnest of Whitman's later nature verse. To none of these contributions, or even to the short-lived magazine in which they appeared, is any reference made, I think, in any Whitman work or biography. Similarly, no particular reference is made to an article in the *Democratic Review*, entitled "A Dialogue" (Vol. XVII, No. LXXXIX, November, 1845, pp. 360-364). This is a sort of Socratic dialogue, in which the young enthusiast writes against capital punishment, the abolition of which was, for a year or two, a favorite cause with him.

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WHY WAS "THE RAVEN" PUBLISHED ANONYMOUSLY?

In the February 8, 1845, issue of the *Broadway Journal*, about a week after the first appearance of "The Raven," occurs this unsigned paragraph:

> The *American Review* for this month is a decided improvement upon the first number. It contains many pleasant articles, and a poem by Mr. Poe, which is not ascribed to that gentleman, for what reason we are at a loss to conceive, for it is a piece of verse which the best of our poets would hardly wish to disown. The prefatory remarks of the Editor are rather mystifying, and seem to tend to the disparagement of the poem as *principally* recommended by its versification.

Commentary on Poe's work is so voluminous and is carried on in so many countries that I should not be rash enough to say that this paragraph has gone utterly unnoted for the past seventy years. But as it does not seem to be referred to in the chapters on 1845, in the chief lives and editions of the poet, I shall assume for the purposes of the present query that it is generally if not quite unknown.

The often-quoted "prefatory remarks" of the editor to "The Raven," by Quarles, are these:

> The following lines from a correspondent—besides the deep quaint strain of the sentiment, and the curious introduction of some ludicrous touches amidst the serious and impressive, as was doubtless intended by the author—appear to us one of the most felicitous specimens of unique rhyming which has for some time met our eye. The resources of English rhythm for varieties of melody, measure, and sound, producing corresponding diversities of effect, have been thoroughly studied, much more perceived, by very few poets in the language. While the classic tongues, especially the Greek, possess, by power of accent, several advantages for versification over our own, chiefly through greater abundance of spondaic feet, we have other and very great advantages of sound by the modern usage of rhyme. Alliteration is nearly the only effect of that kind which the ancients had in common with us. It will be seen that much of the melody of "The Raven" arises from alliteration, and the studious use of similar sounds in unusual places. In regard to its measure, it may be noted that, if all the verses were like the second, they might properly be placed merely in short lines, producing a not uncommon form; but the presence in all the others of one line—mostly the second in the verse—which flows continuously, with only an aspirate pause in the middle, like that before the short line in the Sapphic Adonic, while the fifth has at the middle pause no similarity of sound with any part beside, gives the versification an entirely different effect. We could wish the capacities of our noble language, in prosody, were better understood.

It has been commonly assumed that Poe himself is the author of these prefatory remarks. But there can be no doubt, I suppose, that he himself is the author of the *Broadway* paragraph. Taking this for granted, we are brought to our first query, which is to question the authorship of the prefatory remarks.

The assumption that Poe wrote both may

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plausibly be made as being in accord with his habit of self-advertisement by means of anonymous items written or inspired by himself.

The contrary assumption, in turn, may be supported by the *tone* of the paragraph in the *Broadway*, as if it were written in pique over a real or imaginary grievance.

This leads to a second and third query: If not Poe, who wrote the prefatory remarks? and Why was "The Raven" published anonymously?

The generally accepted explanation, based on the poet's own assertion, is that it was a mere whim of the moment, which he afterwards regretted.

Can it be that Poe was actually "at a loss to conceive" how and why "The Raven" had been published under another name than his?

Can it be that he was not quite himself when he signed "Quarles," or can it be that he forgot having so signed, and hence was really surprised to see it in print?

Could the incident have happened without his knowledge?

The alternative is that the *Broadway* paragraph is nothing more or less than a hoax of Poe's invention, in order to arouse r[illegible]tification and discussion.

It may be that these queries a[illegible]en posed before, but at least, they [illegible], I think, been recently answered. B[illegible] discussion of "The Raven," which h[illegible] called "the most popular poem of [illegible]gth in the language," is, I trust, always [illegible]der.

LEW[illegible] CHASE.

London, England.

THE MODERN USE OF THE WORD "GENIUS."

It is the common opinion that [illegible]e modern sense of the word "geniu[illegible] "innate intellectual power of a high orde[illegible]raordinary capacity for imaginative [illegible]n"—is distinctly a late eighteenth-cent[illegible]evelopment. The first citation given [illegible]'New English Dictionary" for this sens[illegible] word dates from 1749; it is admitted, h[illegible]at before this date the approach to [illegible]n sense was often very close. This, it seems to me, is to overlook certain examples of the use of the word in the critical literature of the last decades of the seventeenth and the early decades of the eighteenth century, where the approach to the modern sense is not only very close, but practically complete.

The ordinary meaning of the word in the latter half of the seventeenth century was, of course, that given by the "New English Dictionary" as sense 4—"the special endowments which fit a man for his peculiar work," or, as Bullokar's "English Expositor" (1656) gives it, "one's natural inclination or propensity to anything." About the beginning of the last quarter of the century, however, the word came to have considerable vogue as a critical term in the sense of "innate fitness for creative work." Its use in this sense led inevitably to its taking on the added idea of "extraordinary capacity." The allied meaning—"a person possessed of genius"—which became common about the same time, doubtless furthered this development, as also did the fact that a similar development was taking place in the French word *génie*. At first, when the idea to be expressed was innate fitness for creative work *plus* extraordinary capacity, a qualifying term, such as "happy" or "great," was used with the word "genius"; but as early as 1685 cases occur where the word is used alone to express the same idea.

The following are a few examples of this use which I have culled from the critical literature of the period from 1685 to 1725:

1. These great masterpieces [works of Raphael, Michael Angelo, etc.] of genius and skill. (Wolseley, Pref. to Rochester's "Valentinian." 1685.)

2. For as good poets have brought forth great store,
So fellows of no genius, with much toil,
Still sweat for humour, which they always spoil.
(Shadwell, Prol. to Bury-Fair. 1689.)

3. Spenser and Milton, who neither of them wanted either genius or learning to have been perfect poets. (Dryden, "Discourse Concerning the Original and Progress of Satire." 1693.)

4. That the modern poets have been so unsuccessful has not proceeded so much from want of genius as from their ignorance of the rules. (Blackmore, Pref. to "Prince Arthur." 1695.)

5. I am far from thinking that any observation of the rules can make amends for want of genius. (Dennis, Pref. to "Iphigenia." 1700.)

6. But whether Aristotle writ those rules to compliment his pupil or . . . to show there was no knowledge beyond the flight of his genius. (Farquahar, "Discourse Upon Comedy." 1702.)

7. Writers who want genius never fail of keeping this secret [use of indecency] in reserve. (Steele, *Spectator*, No. 51. 1711.)

8. Such beautiful extended allegories are certainly some of the finest compositions of genius. (Addison, *Spectator*, No. 357.)

9. When I read an author of genius who writes without method, etc. (Addison, *Spectator*, No. 476.)

10. A man of genius may . . . write letters in verse upon all manner of subjects that are capable of being embellished with wit. (Addison, *Spectator*, No. 618.)

11. Her [England's] men of genius merit great renown. (Blackmore, "Nature of Man." 1720.)

12. The materials to work with are good; what we further require is genius in the workmen; or, in other words, the ingredients, that compose the colouring, being ripe and lasting, there wants only a fine imagination and a skilful hand to direct the pencil. (Welsted, "Discourse Concerning the Perfection of the English Language." 1724.)

It is a little surprising that Dr. Johnson says nothing about this use of the word, for at the time his "Dictionary" appeared genius was beginning to be made a subject for treatises and dissertations. A "Dissertation on Genius," by William Sharpe, appeared in 1755. Alexander Gerard's "Essay on Taste," which was written in 1758, has a chapter on the connection between genius and taste; and here the conception of genius is practically the same as that of writers of the nineteenth century. In a later work, his "Essay on Genius," which did not appear until 1774, but the first part of which, as he tells us, was written shortly after 1758, Gerard is careful to distinguish between genius and mere capacity. "Genius is confounded," he here says, "not only by the vulgar, but even sometimes by judicious writers, with mere capacity. Nothing, however, is more evident than that they are totally distinct."* William Duff's "Essay on Original Genius," which appeared in 1767, is further evidence of the interest taken in the subject at this period. Duff's title was very probably suggested by Young's "Conjectures on Original Composition" (1759)—itself virtually a treatise on genius—and illustrates the persistence of the old habit of using a qualifying word with the term when genius of the very highest rank was meant. Duff's use of the qualifying word is, of course, purely intensive; it serves, as he himself tells us, to indicate a distinction in degree, not in kind. In Duff's view, genius is an innate, creative, or inventive, power of the mind, the distinguishing element of whose composition is imagination, though judgment and taste also enter into it. "Genius," he says, "is characterized by a copious and plastic, as well as a vivid and extensive imagination; by which means it is equally qualified to invent and create, or to conceive and describe in the most lively manner the objects it contemplates."*

EDWARD FULTON.

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*Essay on Genius, 1774, p. 7.

AN EFFECTIVE PARODY OF BROWNING.

Some time ago I had occasion to read through rather carefully the longer works of Browning, published between 1870 and 1876. In the course of my reading I was struck by the fact that in certain of these poems there is an absence of those little irritating stumbling-blocks, *i'* and *o'* (*for in, on, of*). My curiosity thus aroused, I took to counting, with the following results:

1871, "Balaustion's Adventure," 2,705 lines, i', 42 cases; o', 45 cases.

1871, "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," 2,155 lines, i', 67 cases; o', 41 cases.

1872, "Fifine at [illegible] Fair," 2,386 lines, i', 76 cases; o', 59 cases.

1873, "Red Cot[illegible] Night-Cap Country," 4,247 lines, i', 2 cases; o', [illegible]e.

1875, "Arist[illegible]s' Apology," 5,711 lines, i', 6 cases; o', 2 ca[illegible]

1875, "The [illegible]bum," 3,480 lines, i', 10 cases; o', 3 cases.

How is [illegible]udden decline of *i'* and *o'* after 1872 [illegible]ccounted for? Any consideration of [illegible]ipped prepositions must inevitably call [illegible]d those lines of Calverley's delicious pa[illegible]of "The Ring and the Book," "The Cock [illegible]the Bull":

I like [illegible]k the smaller parts-o'-speech
As we [illegible]the already cur-tail'd cur.

Calverley's "Fly Leaves," containing "The Cock and the Bull," was published in March, 1872; "Fifine at the Fair," with its large number [illegible]"docked" prepositions, appeared in May of [illegible]same year. May we not reasonably attribute the sudden and marked decline, af[illegible]872, of Browning's fondness for these "c[illegible]ments" to the parodist's lines?

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SHELLEY AND SPINOZA.

Professor Santyana in "Winds of Doctrine" (p. 173, essay on "Shelley, or the Value of Revolutionary Principles in Poetry"), remarks: ". . . if Shelley had had time to read Spinoza—an author with whom he would have found himself largely in sympathy—he might have learned that nothing is evil in itself, and that what is evil in things is not due to any accident in creation, nor to groundless malice in man."

Let me adduce the following evidence to show that Shelley had taken "time to read Spinoza":

In a letter to Hogg of January 12, 1811, Shelley discusses the question of a first cause and replies to an imaginary query on the origin of the universe "in the words of Spinoza." In letters to Thomas Hookham of December 17, 1812, and January 2, 1813, Shelley refers to Spinoza and Kant. (Ingpen, "Letters of Shelley," see Index. Shelley evidently was read-

*Essay on Original Genius, 1767, p. 47.

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ing the advanced literature of the day; see the list in Ingpen, I, p. 372.)

Hogg in his "Life of Shelley" (new edition, with Introduction by Dowden; London: George Routledge & Sons, 1906), records on p. 373 that Shelley speaks of securing a copy of Spinoza's works (1812), and on p. 373 that Shelley said that he needed only certain particular works.

Medwin in his Life of Shelley (revised edition by H. Buxton Forman; Clarendon Press, 1913), on p. 241, compares Shelley and Spinoza, quoting with approval a passage which Mr. Forman thinks is copied from Lewes, "Biographical History of Philosophy." Again, on p. 253, Medwin says that Shelley and his wife were reading Spinoza in 1820. On p. 350 Medwin adds that he and Shelley read Bacon and Spinoza. The latter is mentioned again on p. 427.

Trelawney in his "Records of Shelley, Byron, and the Author" (Morley's New Universal Library edition), on p. 80, says that in 1822 Shelley was constantly reading Plato, Sophocles, or Spinoza.

In his "Notes on Queen Mab" (1813) Shelley quotes Spinosa (*sic*), "Tractatus Theologico-Politicus," Chap. 1, p. 14. (Thomas Hutchinson's Oxford edition of "The Complete Poetical Works" of Shelley, p. 809.)

Dowden in his Life of Shelley has the following references to Spinoza: In Volume I, p. 330, "From Hookham he (Shelley) obtained a copy of Spinoza's 'Tractatus Theologico-Politicus,' and perhaps a copy of the 'Opera Posthuma'; but although Shelley afterwards worked at a translation of the 'Tractatus' at three several times, we find no evidence that he received in youth any adequate or profound impression, as Goethe did, from the purest and loftiest spirit among philosophical seekers after God." In Volume II, p. 137, it is recorded by Mrs. Shelley in her journal notes, on November 3, 1817, that she was engaged in writing from Shelley's dictation a translation of Spinoza. On pp. 311, 312, Dowden says that Spinoza drew Shelley into discipleship and that in January, 1820, Shelley and his wife were translating Spinoza. On p. 318 it is recorded that in 1820 Shelley was reading "the Bible—Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel—Plato, Æschylus, Virgil, Shakespeare . . . Spinoza." On p. 446, Shelley (November 11-13, 1821), was dictating to Williams considerable fragments of a translation of Spinoza's "Tractatus Theologico-Politicus." On p. 517 we are told that on one occasion Shelley's books were examined at Rome. Among them were the Bible and Spinoza. The former was confiscated, "Spinoza passed free."

Garnett, in the article on Shelley in the "Dictionary of National Biography," says with reference to "Adonais": "The concluding stanzas more fully than any other passage in his writings embody his ultimate speculative conclusions, substantially identical with Spinoza's, whose 'Tractatus' he began to translate about the same time." ("Adonais" was composed at Pisa in the early days of June, 1821; Shelley and his wife had begun to translate the "Tractatus" in 1817.)

These references indicate that for eleven years (1811-1822) Shelley had known Spinoza, had a copy of at least one of his books in his library, that he had a copy with him at least once when travelling, and that he started three times to translate the "Tractatus." We have seen that Dowden holds that, though Shelley did not in youth receive any adequate or profound impression of Spinoza, the latter, by 1820, had drawn the poet into discipleship. Garnett concludes that Shelley's ultimate philosophical position was identical with Spinoza's.

It would, therefore, appear that Mr. Santyana had not given adequate consideration to the testimony of Shelley's own works and that of his biographers regarding his knowledge of Spinoza.

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THE EGYPTIAN BEETLE.

In "Souvenirs Entomologiques" (Volume I, page 1) J. H. Fabre writes of the dung-pill of the Scarabæus that it was the image of the world for Old Egypt. Is he correct? In Webster's New International I find under Scarabæus that the beetle was symbolic to the Old Egyptians of resurrection and immortality; that representations of it were symbols of the sun god Chepera, also signifying the world, man, father, etc.

If the Old Egyptians saw in the perfectly round pill which the dung-beetles produce from loose material to form a food reserve an image of the earth, then they apparently thought of the earth as being round long before Copernicus; but it may be that they saw in the pill a picture of the world which may have been imagined by them as a limited ball within which are all the visible heavenly bodies.

Even so, there remains the discrepancy between Fabre, who states that the pill was the symbol of the world for Old Egypt, and Webster's Dictionary, which gives us the beetle as the symbol of the world, etc.

I should like to know the opinion of an Egyptologer, if available. There might be here one other of the many instances where we are inclined to give the Ancients far less credit than they deserve.

G. EPPRECHT.

Allentown, Pa.

[It is interesting to notice that Fabre was misinformed by his secondary sources as to the significance of the ball which the Egyptian beetle rolls. The Egyptians did not believe that this ball symbolized the *world*, but the *sun*, the shape of which was naturally associated with the ball rolled by the sun-beetle, for the beetle was indeed a symbol of the sun-god. We cannot therefore conclude from the shape of the sun-beetle's ball that the Egyptians knew anything about the spherical shape of the earth.—ED. THE NATION.]

A "KING LEAR" ANALOGUE.

An interesting analogue to the story of King Lear has appeared in a recent volume of Indian folk-lore, "The Orient Pearls," by Shovona Devi, a niece of Rabindranath Tagore (Macmillan). The title of the story is "The Hireling Husband." A "proud and haughty monarch" married seven queens, of whom each bore him a son. When his sons were grown to manhood, he determined to entrust the government of his dominions to them rather than to his ministers. He intended "to let them govern such of his possessions as their gratitude and affection for him should seem to deserve." Accordingly, he asked each in turn, "My dear son, who feeds thee and cares for thee?" The six oldest answered to this effect, "Who but thou?" The king confessed that his purpose was to know from their own lips "which of you loved me best and were most grateful to me." He was satisfied with their answers, and made each of them governor of a province.

"When the turn of the youngest prince came to answer the question, he bluntly said: 'What a queer question to put? Father, who else can feed me but my own destiny? What's lotted can't be blotted.'

"The king flew into a great fury and banished him then and there from his kingdom, saying: 'Oh, thou ungrateful wretch, if thy good destiny feeds thee, look to it to feed thee in thy exile. Thou art henceforth no son of mine.'"

Then follow at length the adventures of the youngest prince, which give the title to the story. In the end the princess whom he marries invades her father-in-law's kingdom with an army and holds the old king as hostage.

"The king now realized the truth of what his youngest son had said to him, and flinging himself upon his neck, said: 'My dear son, thou didst speak the truth, "What is lotted can't be blotted." Thy bride has won my kingdom for thee, and it is no longer mine to give away.'"

The author, in her prefatory note, says that the tales were told to her "by various illiterate village folks" and "not a few" were told by a blind man still in her service, "with a retentive memory and a great capacity for telling a story."

The resemblances between "The Hireling Husband" and the story of Lear are evident. Especially marked is the likeness between the two kings, who are both of advanced age and choleric temper.

CARRIE A. HARPER.

South Hadley, Mass.

CASABIANCA.

I am writing to correct a palpable error in your correspondent's letter on the "Death Song of the Marine Fusiliers" (*Nation*, November 18, 1915), as the matter is of more than ordinary interest at the present moment. The passage runs: "Buri and Vialat are the thirteen-year-old boys, sung in the 'Chant du Départ,' dead at their post *like the English boy who stood on the burning deck*," etc. In point of fact, the boy referred to was not English, but French, the reference being, of course, to "Casabianca," a short poem written by Mrs. Hemans to commemorate the heroic death of the son of Admiral Brueys at the battle of the Nile in 1798, while under the orders of his father. After the latter had been borne below wounded, his flagship, the Orient, was blown to atoms by an explosion that took place in the powder magazine of the vessel, only a few of the crew escaping. *Palmam qui meruit.*

V. W. HILL.

London, England.

WILLIAM DUNLAP.

I am preparing a dissertation at Columbia University on William Dunlap. At present I am investigating the material in the various libraries of New York city. If any of your readers can refer me to other material, such as diaries, letters, and manuscripts, or to any source of information, I should be glad to have them communicate with me.

O. S. COAD.

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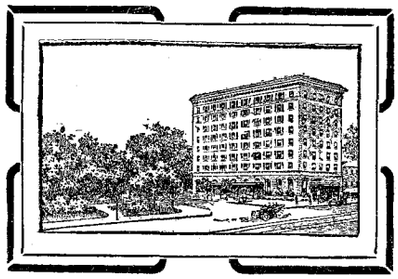

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